

T H E
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ART. I. *The History of Hindostan during the Reigns of Jehangir, Shahjehan, and Aurungzebe.* By Francis Gladwin, Esq.
4to. Vol. I. p. 154. Calcutta. Stuart and Cooper.
1788.

THIS is the first volume of the work which we acquainted our readers, in the Review for July last, Mr. Gladwin was preparing for the press. It contains the history of the reign of Jehangir, partly selected from the memoirs written by that monarch himself. As this reign appears to have been much less distinguished than that of Shahjehan or Aurungzebe, it is probable that the accounts of them will be much larger, but to what extent we have not been informed. We have received this volume from India, by the favour of a friend, and shall take the earliest opportunity of giving an account of the remaining part of this history, so soon as it shall arrive. The best information respecting the plan of the work, that we can now offer, is contained in the author's preface, of which the following is an extract.

The Mogul empire in Hindostan, did not obtain any regular form till the reign of Akber. Timour was only an invader. Baber possessed little more than Lahoor and Cabul*. Hemayun was expelled by Shere Khan; and lived but a few months after having recovered his kingdom, by the defeat of Secunder Sour, the son and successor of that usurper. Akber, at the age of thirteen, succeeded to the peaceful inheritance of his father's dominions; and, during his minority, the government acquired vigour, new provinces were conquered, commerce flourished, the finances were improved, and disbursements regulated, through the activity and valour, the wisdom, integrity, and œconomy of Byram Khan, the Ameer ul Omrah. When the Emperor assumed the management of affairs, he pursued the wise plans of Byram Khan; and after the experience of thirty-seven years, with the assistance of an upright and most able minister, reduced his observations to a regular system. His institutes, drawn up by the great Abulfazel, are a lasting monument of their united fame. The skill and sagacity displayed in these arrangements, for every department, with the regard shewn throughout for the security of the life and property of the meanest peasant, give us an

* The two northernmost provinces of India.

high idea of the government; and it astonishes us to hear the minister of an absolute prince, bred up in a faith notorious for its intolerant spirit, discussing with freedom the rights of humanity; boldly reprobating persecution, and maintaining that the Almighty is the common parent of all mankind: But we contemplate with still higher admiration and reverence, the monarch, who in opposition to the prevailing maxims of despotism, could not only adopt such enlarged sentiments himself, but have the generosity to authorise their promulgation, in order to diffuse general happiness, by establishing peace and unanimity amongst his subjects of such opposite persuasions, as the followers of the Bedes and those of the Mohammedan faith. The one mild and forgiving, refusing proselytes, but professing an universal philanthropy: the other fierce and vindictive, making converts with the sword; despising and persecuting all those who embrace not their particular creed; pursuing, with unrelenting fury, even those amongst themselves, who differ but in the most immaterial point, regarding them as absolute infidels, the objects of their scorn and detestation.

The candour and indulgence which I have experienced, in the publication of my translation of the *Ayeen Akbery**, both here and in Europe, embolden me to attempt a delineation of the most material changes that happened in the constitution of Hindostan, during the succeeding reigns of Jehangir, Shahjehan, and Aurungzebe.

The materials for this work are taken from authentic Persian manuscripts; of which I have an ample collection purchased at a very great expence, during twenty-three years residence in India. The English reader may rely upon the fidelity of this compilation; and for the satisfaction of the Orientalist, whenever I have met with any edict, law, or regulation, particularly important, curious, or interesting, I have given the original along with the translation, in an appendix at the end of each reign. Those of Jehangir and Shahjehan afford only a few instances of innovation or reform; but the reign of Aurungzebe furnishes many important documents; as under the government of that Monarch, the constitution of Hindostan was publicly declared (what was before only implied) to be founded on the strictest principles of Mohammedanism; and in these edicts the landed property, and other rights of the subject are clearly stated; many points relative to the prerogative of the crown are accurately defined; and the officers of Government fully instructed in the nature and extent of their respective duties.

From the consideration, that under Aurungzebe the empire attained to its fullest vigour, I have deferred, till the conclusion of his reign, my remarks on the progressive state of Hindostan; and particularly of the revenues, from the accession of Jehangir; and by observing this method, I am enabled to place the whole in a clear and comprehensive point of view.

To make the account of Jehangir complete, Mr. Gladwin has prefixed to the history of his reign, such particular events as took place relative to him, during the reign of his father Akber. This consists principally of the dissensions which arose between the father and his son; whilst the one was endeavour-

* The institutes of Akber, a work published by Mr. G. a few years since in three volumes quarto.

ing to extend the limits of his dominions, the other, instigated by evil counsellors, laboured to usurp the imperial authority. Indeed, one of the most prominent features in the Mogul history, is that of the civil wars between the father and the son, the one to maintain, and the other to acquire the supreme power. The son being appointed by the Emperor to the command of large armies, his ambition is excited, and, impatient of waiting till nature shall put him into the quiet possession of the throne, he attempts to mount it through the blood of his father and his faithful subjects. The wisdom and lenity of Akber, however, prevented Jehangir from appearing in open rebellion against him; and he succeeded his father in peace, at Agra, on the 22d October, 1605. 'The first order which Jehangir issued, on his accession to the throne was for the construction of the golden chain of justice. It was made of pure gold, and measured thirty yards, consisting of sixty links, weighing four maunds of Hindostan (about four hundred pounds avoirdupois.) One end of the chain was suspended from the royal bastion of the fortress of Agra, and the other fastened in the ground near the side of the river. The intention of this extraordinary invention was, that if the officers of the courts of law were partial in their decisions, or dilatory in the administration of justice, the injured parties might come themselves to this chain, and making a noise by shaking the links of it, give notice that they were waiting to represent their grievances to his Majesty.'

Jehangir had reigned only six months when his eldest son, Sultan Khufro, appeared in open rebellion against him. This rebellion was soon quelled, and Khufro being taken, was committed to prison; and the Emperor declared his younger son, Sultan Khorum, afterwards Shajehan, his heir. The marriage of the Emperor with Meha ul Nessa Begum, the widow of a prince of Burdwan, who was slain for disobeying his orders, is recorded as one of the most remarkable events of this reign; as her power over Jehangir soon became absolute, and all affairs of state were committed to her management. Her name was changed to Nourjehan Begum (Princess the light of the world,) and inscribed upon the coin; and, excepting that she was not prayed for in the Khotbah, she was in every respect the absolute monarch of the empire. It is to the mother of this lady, that the world is indebted for the discovery of the method of making atyr of roses; of which Mr. G. gives the following description, which we insert for the perusal of our fair readers. 'The atyr is the essential oil of roses, a very small proportion of which floats upon the surface of distilled rose-water, whilst it is warm, and is collected by means of a piece of cotton fastened upon a stick. It is the most delicate perfume that is known, being as exquisite as the scent of a new-blown rose. The Emperor presented the inventress with a string of valuable pearls.'

After Shahjehan had been declared heir to the empire, he was appointed commander of the Imperial forces, and reduced the princes of the Decan to subjection. But Nourjehan Begum, fearing to lose all her authority in case of the Emperor's death, excited jealousies between him and his son, with a view of raising her son-in-law, Sheriar, to the throne. This set the whole empire in a flame; and compelled a dutiful son, for his own preservation, to take arms against an affectionate parent. The intestine wars which ensued, shook the very throne, and made the empire a scene of blood and devastation, for the space of seven years; so that there was not a family of any consequence in the country but in some degree shared of the calamities. During these commotions, Jehangir died, in the sixtieth year of his age, and twenty-second of his reign.

Although a professor of the Mohammedan religion, Jehangir was excessively addicted to drinking strong liquor, of which he gives an account in his memoirs.—That at the age of fifteen, having drank a cup of sweet white wine, he found it so delicious, that from that time he became fond of liquor, and daily increased his dose, till at length the expressed juice of the grape had no effect upon him: constantly, for nine years, he drank of double distilled spirits, fourteen cups in the day, and six cups at night, which, he says, were altogether equal to six Hindostan seers, or English quarts. At this time he had hardly any appetite, his daily food being a chicken, with a little bread and some radishes. By a continuance of this course, his nerves became so affected, that he was obliged to get somebody to lift the cup to his mouth. But a physician having assured him, that if he continued in this way six months longer, his disorder would be absolutely incurable, he gradually diminished his daily quantity, and at the end of seven years brought himself to be satisfied with six cups daily, which he drank at night.

At the end of this volume, the principal routes of Jehangir throughout Hindostan are annexed, extracted from his own memoirs. We shall conclude this article with an extract from one of those routes, as it shews, that although it was common in India for the son to appear in arms against his father, yet a parricide was an object of general execration.

* The fort of Mendow is situated on a mountain, and is upwards of ten coss (about twenty miles) in circuit. Here is the tomb of Nassireddeen*; who murdered his father, Ghiasseddeen, in the eightieth year of his age. He made two fruitless attempts to poison his parent, and the third time he succeeded, by infusing some noxious drugs in Sherbet. The old man suspected his design, but drank it off, praying God to forgive the parricide, being himself fully satisfied with the number of his days. This Nassireddeen peopled a city entirely with women, all the officers being of that sex. He is said to have had

* A king of Malwah.

fifteen thousand women. When Sheer Khan arrived at this tomb, he ordered it to be beaten with a stick. Jehangir had the bones dug up, and ordered them to be burnt; but reflecting that fire is a ray of the Divinity, he was apprehensive that this ceremony might be the means of mitigating the parricide's torments in hell, and therefore commanded that his remains should be scattered in the river Ner-budda, to which element they properly belonged, for he was drowned. The story of his death is as follows:—He was excessively fond of bathing, and one day having dived in the moat of Culeeyadeh, and remained so long under water as to have become senseless, one of his servants in order to save his life, dragged him out by the hair of his head. When he came to himself, instead of rewarding such a service, he was so enraged at the indignity of being dragged by the hair, that he ordered the man's hands to be cut off. In consequence of which, when a like accident befel him again, the attendants suffered him to remain under water till he was actually dead. This happened in A. H. 916, or A. D. 1510.' A. D.

ART. II. *The History of the Rise, Progress, and Establishment of the Independence of the United States of America: including an Account of the late War, and of the Thirteen Colonies, from their Origin to that Period.* By William Gordon, D.D. 4 Vols. 8vo. pages 2032. Price 1l. 4s. in boards. Dilly. 1788.

SINCE the reformation by Luther, no event has occurred which, for its importance to the political state of the civilized world, may be compared with the subject of the present volumes. The revolution of America, not only established a powerful and improving empire beyond the Atlantic, which must in time extend its influence over the affairs of Europe; but it undoubtedly contributed to excite that spirit of liberty, which is at this moment employed in effecting the most unexpected changes in the most arbitrary governments. Every memorial of these great transactions must therefore be highly valuable. From a residence on the spot, and from a number of original communications, Dr. Gordon was well qualified to present to the public, a useful and interesting collection of facts; and if we cannot attribute to him on all occasions the epithet impartial, we must at least allow that he appears to be a very authentic historian. The history before us is composed in the form of letters, though we cannot help thinking it one of the most inconvenient forms of historical composition. The familiar style adapted to epistolary correspondence, is totally inconsistent with the dignity of history, and the narrative is necessarily incumbered occasionally with expletive expressions.

Dr. Gordon in the first letter presents us with a concise but interesting account of the first settlement of the North American colonies, in which he evinces most clearly, that many of them were by their original charters and constitutions, expressly exempted

from taxation by the authority of the British parliament; that this claim is asserted in only one of the charters; that most of the colonies resisted all such claims from their earliest establishment; and that no colony, but that of Georgia, was settled at the expence of the British Government. In the second letter, the same subject is pursued, and the sentiments of the Americans are shewn to have been always extremely averse to the principle of parliamentary taxation. The services performed to the mother country, by the colonies, are detailed, particularly the defence of Nova Scotia, and the taking of Louisburg in 1744 and 1745. The establishment of a company of noblemen, merchants, and others in London, by royal charter under the title of the Ohio company, is next mentioned, as well as the war which was excited by the proceedings of that company in 1754. The plan recommended by the congress at Albany, for the equal levying of money upon the colonies, is explained. The system also of the English ministry for taxing the colonies by parliament, on the representation of the governors and councils only, is shewn to be highly unacceptable to the colonies, and a most judicious letter from Dr. Franklin against that plan, as early as December 1754, is given at full length. The services of the Americans during the war are briefly recapitulated; in the course of it, it appears, the colonies lost 25,000 of their robust young men, exclusive of sailors; the expences of one colony (the Massachusetts) only, amounted to 754,598*l.* sterling, exclusive of many other incidental expences, and exclusive of the personal services of the militia; and the rate of taxes run in the colonies at 13*s.* 4*d.* in the pound. The conspiracy formed in Great Britain for the overthrow of the colonial governments is next exposed, and the letter concludes with some other remarks on the impolitic conduct of the English ministry.

The third letter may be esteemed the proper commencement of the history, and begins with an account of the passing of an act in 1764, for raising a revenue from America by certain duties on molasses, &c. The act was modestly petitioned against by the Massachusetts assembly, which petition was accompanied with a most rational letter from Governor Bernard, in which he asserts that, 'while the American trade is confined to Great Britain, the whole profits of that trade must centre in England,' in consequence of which, duties levied in England, on goods imported or exported, must be even a more effectual mode of taxing America than by the idle expedient of collecting them in that country. The colonies universally united against the right of parliamentary taxation, and even some associations were formed against the use of British manufactures. The passing of the stamp act in 1765, is the next object that solicits the reader's attention. On this occasion

occasion Dr. Gordon offers some remarks which appear novel and important, and will furnish a proper specimen of the Doctor's argumentative style.

The supporters of the stamp-act insisted much upon the colonies being *virtually* represented; and mentioned *Leeds, Hallifax, Birmingham, Manchester, &c.* as enjoying a *virtual representation*. Whoever had a recourse to a *virtual representation* of the colonies, in vindication of the parliament's taxing them, therein acknowledged, that there ought not to be taxation without representation. But the difference between *Leeds, Hallifax, &c.* and the *American* colonies, is as wide as the *Atlantic*. The landholders of those towns enjoy a real representation, if their freeholds yield a certain annual income. Many of the inhabitants have a choice in the election of members, in one place or another. The general interest of the freeholders and tenants, electors and non-electors, are so interwoven, that all are liable to be equally affected by the same common taxes. The one pays the same duty on sugar, tea, coffee, and chocolate, as the other. The relative connection between them, produces what may be called, with a kind of propriety, a *virtual representation*; answering, though in a lower degree, to what the family of a freeholder or freeman enjoys. But was all the soil in the British colonies a man's freehold, it would not give him a single vote for any one member of parliament. The interests of *America* and *Britain* are not interwoven, as are those of British electors and non-electors. If the British parliament impose taxes on the Americans, Britons do not bear with them their part and proportion in the said taxes. The former are burdened, that the latter may be eased. The monies raised have the nature of a tribute, exacted from a conquered people in a slavish dependence; and not of a tax voluntarily granted by the voice of freemen, through their own elected representatives, paying scot and lot with themselves for the support of government. Beside, the British parliament are so far removed from America, that they cannot obtain that full information respecting the colonies, which ought always to accompany the exercise of a taxing power.

The night after the stamp-act was passed, Dr. Franklin wrote to Mr. Charles Thompson—'The sun of liberty is set; you must light up the candles of industry and economy.' Mr. T. answered, he was apprehensive that other lights would be the consequence.

The chief opposition to the stamp act, originated in a few resolves which Geo. Johnson and Patrick Henry, esqrs. introduced into the house of burgesses of Virginia, in a thin meeting toward the close of the session. The first idea of that most formidable engine of the revolution, a general congress, was started in a private conversation at Mr. Warren's in New England. The congress met at New York in October 1765, and transmitted a petition against the stamp act to the British legislature. Previous to this business, disturbances had broken out at Boston. On the 14th of August some gentlemen of that city, to manifest their abhorrence to the stamp-act, had hung upon the bough of an old elm, over the most public street,

street, the figure of a stamp-officer, and of a jack-boot, with a head and horns peeping out. The populace immediately caught fire, and destroyed a number of houses, &c. belonging to gentlemen concerned in the collection of the customs; and the disturbances were afterwards renewed on the 26th, when the Lieutenant Governor, Mr. Hutchinson's house was demolished. Similar disturbances, though not equally violent, arose in all the other colonies, and so intimidated the friends of government, that all the persons nominated as distributors of the stamps, resigned. The agreement not to import British manufactures followed these proceedings; it originated at New York, as well as an association which was entered into by the colonies one with another, for the purpose of resisting parliamentary taxation. The English ministry being changed in 1766, the stamp-act was repealed; but the joy of the friends of liberty was somewhat allayed, by the passing, at the same time, of what is commonly called the declaratory act, expressive of Great Britain's right to tax the colonies.

No event of any importance took place, from this period, till the 13th of May 1767, when Mr. Charles Townsend introduced a bill into parliament, for levying certain duties in America, on paper, glass, teas, &c. to which bill there was superadded a most dangerous clause, empowering the crown by sign manual to establish a civil list in every one of the colonies, to any indefinite extent. This was followed by an act for erecting a custom-house and board of commissioners at Boston, and by another, which suspended for a pretended offence the legislative powers of the New York assembly. The ill policy of placing the commissioners of the customs at Boston, is well pointed out by Dr. Gordon. Notwithstanding the dangerous tendency of these acts, the spirit of resistance which had subsided after the repeal of the stamp act, was remarkably languid, and was excited by very slow degrees; it was not till the publication of the Farmers Letters, and other intelligent essays on the subject, that the colonists became sensible of the danger; some other uncommonly arbitrary measures indeed contributed to promote these alarms, and particularly the design of transporting a number of soldiers into the colonies, and the act of parliament for quartering them, which expressly authorized them 'to break into any house by day or by night, under *pretence* (these are the words of the act) of searching for deserters.' The first steps of the colonists were to seek redress by peaceable petitions and memorials; when these failed, they were reduced to the expedient of a non-importation agreement, and that of chusing committees, &c. In the mean time 700 soldiers entered Boston, under cover of 14 men of war, and with every circumstance of insolence which could tend to provoke the people. The Bostonians, however, conceiving that

that it was the design of the ministry, to incite the mob to some riotous action by means of these soldiers, in order to give them an opportunity of inflicting some severe chastisement on the town, prudently remained quiet. The resolves of the parliament of Great Britain, in February 1769, which recommended the despotic measure of seizing the inhabitants of America, and conveying them to England to be tried for high treason, only tended to vex and alarm them still more, without dictating any wise or prudent measure for terminating the dispute. The succeeding recess of parliament exhibited the British ministry in a contemptible light; for notwithstanding the pompous boast of Lord North, that 'they would never repeal, till America should be prostrate at their feet,' we find Lord Hillsborough, in a well-known circular letter, pledging the king's word to the American assemblies, 'to repeal the duties on glass, paper, and colours, and promising to lay no further taxes.' These duties were repealed on the 12th of April 1770, but the tea duty was continued as a badge of sovereignty over the colonies.

This apparent, but deceitful concession, which, while it retained the principle, pretended to give up the subject of the contest, did not restore the colonies to tranquillity. In Boston particularly, the measure of rendering the governor and judges dependent on the king, and independent of the province, excited fresh alarms. Committees were appointed for the protection of the public liberty, for the communication of intelligence, &c. These discontents were not likely to be removed by the conduct of ministry. The retention of the tea duty was evidently contrary to the interests of commerce; it encouraged smuggling, and the India company, feeling its ill effects, liberally offered, if the act were repealed, to pay six pence per lb. on exportation, in lieu of the three-pence which was to be levied in America, without the expence of collecting, &c. This proposal, so beneficial to the revenue of England, was strangely rejected. The colonies were further exasperated, by the communication of certain letters, from some of the American governors to administration at home, which had been obtained by Dr. Franklin, and which manifested, as they conceived, a deliberate and settled system to undermine successively the liberties of the different provinces. A general agreement was presently entered into against the importation of the taxable article *tea*, and towards the end of the year 1773, the spirit of resisting its importation had almost risen to commotion. Most of the colonies resolved that the tea should be sent back; the consignees at Philadelphia resigned their employments, but those of Boston were not so prudent. On the 16th of December 1773, a number of persons, disguised as Indians, repaired to the tea ships at Boston, and discharged their
contents

contents into the sea, amidst thousands of applauding spectators. This action proved the signal for the ministry to commence their coercive system with respect to the colonies, a material part of which was the memorable act for shutting up the port of Boston, which had the royal assent, on the 31st of March, 1774; and this was immediately followed by two other bills for altering the constitution of the Massachusetts Bay, and for trying offences committed in that country in England. The Quebec bill, which established Popery and the French laws in that province, received the royal assent on the 22d of June in the same year; and a military governor (Gen. Gage) was appointed to coerce the refractory inhabitants of Boston. These impolitic measures had an effect directly contrary to that which this short-sighted ministry intended; they served more firmly to unite the colonies, each of whom apprehended similar violations of their charters and legal rights; while their compassion was excited for the inhabitants of Boston, whom they considered only as the first victims. The immediate effect was fatal to Great Britain, viz. the assembling of a general congress, which, it might easily be foreseen, would not only create a great federal union between the provinces, but would tend to the erection of a system of government for the continent independent of the British. Such indeed was the spirit of the people throughout the country, that on a vague report of Boston being blockaded, an embassy was sent from the country to assure them of several thousands of armed men being ready to march to their assistance, and to acquaint them, at the same time, that if they should even be disposed to submit, the people of the country would not esteem themselves bound by their act.

The general Congress met on the 5th of September, 1774; the first acts of which were a reprobation of the measures of administration, and the recommendation of a general non importation agreement. The whole extent of their demand to Great Britain was 'to be placed in the same situation they were in at the close of the last war!' and they concluded their session by resolving, 'that the seizing, or attempting to seize, any person in America, in order to transport such person beyond the sea, for trial of offences committed in America, being against law, will justify, and ought to meet with resistance and reprisal.' The absurdity of passing the obnoxious acts of parliament before there was a military force in America sufficient to maintain them, was now apparent; as the whole continent appeared presently in a military state, the inhabitants were training with the utmost alacrity to arms, and they not only seized the government of the whole country, but even the cannon and ammunition in most places.

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The year 1774 gave a new parliament to Great Britain; but this parliament persevered in the same fatal measures, and appeared, if possible, still more devoted to administration than the former. Struck, however, and alarmed, with the unanimity of the Americans, before the Christmas recess the ministry inclined to give way; they secretly applied, by their emissaries, to the great body of American merchants, desiring them to frame petitions for the redress of American grievances, and assuring them that it was their wish to repeal the obnoxious acts, *apparently* upon petitions from home; while, however, these affairs were in agitation, they received letters from New York, assuring them that the * assembly there would break the union by dissenting from the congress; fresh hopes therefore were rekindled in the breasts of these truly incompetent statesmen, and they determined once more on pursuing hostile measures. With unparalleled rashness they proceeded, and, as if the former obnoxious acts were not sufficient to irritate, after rejecting, unheard, the petitions from Congress, from the West Indies, from London, and each of the trading towns; after rejecting the very advantageous plan of reconciliation proposed by Lord Chatham, they induced both Houses to concur in an address to his Majesty, declaring upon the strength of the tea riots, that a *rebellion* actually existed (that is they made a formal declaration of war), while, at the same time, they had not troops in America to repel this rebellion, or to support their declaration. The bill for restraining the commerce of the New England colonies, the obvious effect of which was to convert all the unemployed seamen into a military, hostile to Great Britain, immediately followed. The weakness of the ministry was however completely displayed in a succeeding act.

While the bill was pending, Lord North amazed all parties, and seemed for a time nearly to dissolve his own, by a *conciliatory motion* in regard to America. It was proposed, "That when the governor, council, and assembly, or general court of his Majesty's provinces or colonies, shall propose to make provision, according to their respective conditions, circumstances, and situations, for contributing their proportion to the common defence (such proportion to be raised under the authorities of the general court, or general assembly, of such province or colony, and disposable by parliament) and shall engage to make provision also, for the support of the civil government, and the administration of justice in such province or colony, it will be proper, if such proposal should be approved by his Majesty in parliament, and for so long as such provision shall be made accordingly, to forbear, in respect of such province or colony, to levy any duties,

* Mr. Quincy's journal quoted, p. 436, asserts that large sums had been sent out from Britain to New York, in order to bribe the assembly.

tax or assessment; or to impose any farther duty, tax or assessment, except only such duties as it may be expedient to impose for the regulation of the commerce, the nett produce of the duties last mentioned to be carried to the account of such province, colony, or plantation, respectively. The numerous high prerogative party, who had ever opposed any relaxation in favour of the colonies, heard the proposition with horror, and considered themselves as abandoned or betrayed. They pronounced it a shameful prevarication, and a mean departure from principle; and finally concluded with declaring, that they would make no concessions to rebels with arms in their hands; and that they would enter into no measure for a settlement with the Americans, in which an express and definitive acknowledgement from them of the supremacy of parliament was not a preliminary article. A gentleman of the long robe, and who has lately distinguished himself for his zeal in promoting all the measures for reducing the colonies (Mr. W——) had the address in a few minutes to hush the commotion, by convincing the malcontents, that the *appearance* of concession, lenity, and tenderness, which had so much alarmed them, were of such a nature that they could not interfere with the most rigid measures which they wished to enforce. The gentlemen in opposition said, “The motion is insidious, base, and treacherous in the highest degree.” The minister acknowledged it to be a cheat, and designed for the purpose of dis-uniting the Americans; but it will tend only to consolidate that common mass of union into which they have been thrown by the Boston port act. The question was carried by a majority of three to one.*

The news of the parliamentary proceedings encouraged the soldiery at Boston to insult the people in the most intolerable manner, and while things were approaching to a crisis, Mr. Adams received private advice, that a detachment was shortly to be sent to Lexington, where he and Mr. Hancock were, with a design, as was believed, of seizing their persons. The detachment marched from Boston at eleven o'clock at night, on the 18th of April, 1775, to the number of 800 chosen troops; at four in the morning they fell in with 70 of the Lexington company of militia, eight of whom they killed; and during this transaction, Messrs. Hancock and Adams made their escape. The country, however, soon rallied, when General Gage dispatched Lord Percy, with a reinforcement of 900; notwithstanding this, the provincials, after several skirmishes, obliged the whole body to retreat precipitately to Boston; and, in this action, the British lost 273, and the Americans only 88.

In the month of April, 1775, a bill for restraining the commerce of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, and South Carolina, which effectually prevented the division or disunion of the colonies, received the royal assent. The following sentiment, though not quite agreeable to the present notions of military etiquette, will, we doubt not, in the course of a few years be more generally approved:

* The earl of Effingham has uniformly opposed the whole system of measures pursued against the Americans; and finding that the regi-
ment

ment in which he served was at length destined for America, and thinking it inconsistent with his character, and beneath his dignity, to enforce measures with his sword, which he had so utterly condemned in his legislative capacity, he wrote a letter of resignation to the secretary of war. In it he deeply regretted his being necessitated to quit the military profession; but said, "I cannot, without reproach from my own conscience, consent to bear arms against my fellow subjects in America, in what, to my discernment, is not a clear cause." Pity that it is not a point of honor with all military officers, to consider the merits of the cause wherein their swords are to be employed, and when they are not satisfied in their own judgments, to practise as the noble earl has done. Such a point of honor might hinder many a war.'

[*To be continued.*]

ART. III. Brand's *History of Newcastle.*

[*Concluded from p. 179.*]

THE second volume contains accounts of the river, its navigation and trade, the religious foundations on its banks, &c. the history of Newcastle, as a corporate town, with its representatives, incorporated companies, &c. and lastly, annals and historical events.

1. *The Tyne.* After a judicious observation, quoted from Whitaker, 'that the appellations of rivers are more universally preserved than those of towns, these being confined to a small extent of region, while rivers flow through a length of country, and communicate their waters to different districts and various associations of men,' the author gives a number of different etymologies of the Tyne, of which the best seems to be that of Bullet *, from a Celtic word, signifying *double*, that is, a river formed of two rivers.

This river abounding in fisheries, early disputes began to arise about the property of it. From p. 6 to 36 are employed in the history of these disputes, from which it seems to appear that one third of the river belongs to the bishop of Durham (p. 19), but the conservatorship and admiralty, to the mayor and corporation of Newcastle (p. 23); but that they have not, and do not yet, preserve the river with the care they ought to do (p. 22, 23. 31, 32).

In p. 13, we meet with the following 'accurate description' of the Tyne;

'The Tyne rises from different sources, some of them about 60 miles to the north-west, and others about 50 to the west and south-west of Newcastle, from whence to its entrance into the sea at Tynemouth, is about 10 miles. The channel between Newcastle and Tynemouth is of very different width and depth, so that the tide is more rapid in some places than in others. The entrance into the

* Mem. sur la Langue Celtiq. tom. i. p. 346.

harbour,

harbour, at the low lights, is very narrow; but the channel forms into a fine bafon for the whole length of Shields, capable of holding above 2000 fail of ships. Above which the tide fpreads over the extensive flats of Jarrow Slake, and then, for a great length, forms a remarkably fine broad and deep pool, called the Long Reach. After this the tide is obftruded by feveral windings and narrow places in the channel, till it comes within about a mile of Newcastle, where it runs in an open and wider pool, till it flows about two miles above the town, when it is a good deal intercepted in its courfe by a large ifland, confifting of many acres, called the King's Meadows; after flowing round this ifland by two narrow channels, and through feveral beautiful windings, it rifes a little above the village of Newburn, in all about feven or eight miles above Newcastle. The tides commonly flow about four hours and a half, and ebb about feven hours and a half at Newcastle-bridge; and the perpendicular rife of the river here, in a fpring-tide, is about 11 or 12 feet; on Tynmouth-bar about 18 feet; but both thefe circumftances vary greatly from the different winds, and the different quantities of frefh water in the river: in a north-wefterly wind they will fometimes rife three feet higher than is mentioned above; and in a fouth-wefterly one, fometimes fcarcely half fo high; and in fome of our great land-floods, the tide has not fufficient force to ftem and turn the current, which will fet downwards during the whole fwell of the tide.' *Rotheram on Water*, p. 114.

The following extracts fhew, in a ftrong light, the mifchievous tendency of exclusive commercial privileges.

* P. 8.--1259, it was ftipulated in an agreement between the prior of Durham and the town of Newcastle, that the tenants of the former at South Shields might brew and bake for themfelves only, but not for ftrangers.

* P. 14.--1416. A law-fuit between the above parties concerning the holding of markets at S. Shields, for fifh, bread, and beer.

* P. 17.--1530. All fhips prohibited to load or unload, within certain limits, but at the port of Newcastle.

* P. 28.--n. Sept. 30. 1690. In the common council books, a committee is appointed to confider of the means neceffary for preventing the great growth of trade at Shields.—The following paffage occurs in North's Life of Lord Keeper North, p. 121, "Ever fince fhips have been built larger, the port towns have crept nearer the main; as they fay would happen on the Tyne, and Shields become the port-town, if Newcastle had not a privilege that no common baker or brewer fhould fet up between them and the fea."

* P. 30.--1705. An attempt made to make the Were navigable, and build piers at Sunderland; on which the corporation of Newcastle inftruded their members to oppofe the bill.

* Ibid. 1711. The corporation oppofed the making the river navigable from Newburn to Hexham, as likely to hurt the port of Newcastle.'

The exports of Newcastle are coals, lead, glafs, falt, (now almoft loft, by the recent difcoveries in the art of preparing foft falt), grindftones, tallow, butter, and falmon. The imports, corn and flour, wines and fpirits, timber, tar, iron, hemp and flax, fruits, fmalts, afhes, &c.—Nine or ten veffels are annually

annually employed in the Greenland fishery (p. 36, 37.) The revenue of the Custom-house in 1772 was 41,000*l.* exclusive of the Duke of Richmond's shilling a chaldron, amounting to about 15,000*l.* more *.

The glass works on the Tyne, in 1772, 16 in number †, were first introduced about 1616, by Sir Robert Mansel, vice-admiral of England; who seems to have got three families from France to begin his works, two of which, the Henzells and Tyzacks, it is remarkable, still continue to preside over them, and will admit none of any other name to work with them, (p. 44 n.)

On the south-side of the river, about seven miles below Newcastle, stood the monastery of Jarrow, famous for being the place of education and residence of venerable Bede, sent hither in 684 (p. 50), and for being the subject, to this day, of various superstitious and ridiculous stories (p. 62).

But the author's principal attention is devoted to the monastery and castle of Tynemouth, which some recent discoveries (p. 66, 67) prove to have been possessed by the Romans, and to have been the seat of a religious house, in the earliest ages of Christianity.—The foundation of the last house was in 1090, as an appendage to the monastery of St. Albans (p. 72). In 1235, several grants were made to the monastery, for the purpose of mending their ale (p. 82), and to enable them to encrease their hospitality. In 1384, on the 20th of August, being the feast of the passion of St. Oswin, king and martyr, as a sailor was cutting a piece of wood on board his ship at Newcastle upon-Tyne, he saw blood gush out of it in great abundance; when recollecting the festival, he gave over work; but a companion of his, regardless of the miracle, persisted in the profane business, when, upon striking the wood, the blood gushed out again in still greater abundance. Both clergy and laity were informed of, and approved the miracle; and the wood was carried to Tynemouth, where the saint's body was interred, to be there preserved in testimony thereof!! (p. 98)

The following singular extract from a MS. in the Cotton Library, shews the depravity to which these monastic institutions too naturally led. '*Crimina comperta in variis monasteriis, Tynemouth, Sodom. Robertus Halle, cum septem aliis, per voluntar' polluc.*'—Six of the eight names occur in the deed of surrender, dated Jan. 12, 1539 (p. 106).

After the surrender, we find this principally mentioned as a place of strength, particularly in the time of the civil wars, during which it is probable the church was greatly damaged; for, about the beginning of Dec. 1659, the soldiers having

* P. 43, from Hutton's Map.

† P. 46. See ditto.

been drawn into a chapel, to sign an engagement to stand by the Lord Lambert, a part thereof fell in and killed several of them (p. 118). And in 1668, a new church was completed, which had been begun in 1659 (p. 119, 120).

‘The architecture of this building,’ says the author, ‘resembling that of a Presbyterian meeting-house, sufficiently marks it to have been undertaken before the Restoration.’

The castle-yard is now principally used as a burial-place; ‘on an upright stone in which is the following singular anachronism; in the crest of the shipwright’s arms, Noah’s ark is pierced for guns, and has a quarter-deck (p. 124).’

The author concludes his account of this place in the following words (p. 126);

‘The village of Tinmouth is at present a place of genteel resort in the bathing season, for which purpose the recess, called Prior’s Haven, on the south side of the castle, is exceedingly well adapted. The usual morning walk of the company is among the extensive and venerable remains of this castle and monastery, where visitants of taste will not forbear to exclaim, in the language of Shakspeare;

O! it pities us,

To see these antique towers and hallowed walls
Split with the winter’s frost, or mouldering down,
Their very ruins ruin’d: the crush’d pavement,
Time’s marble register, deep overgrown
With hemlock or rank fumitory, hides,
Together with their perishable mould,
The brave man’s trophies, and the good man’s praise,
Envyng the worth of buried ancestry! (p. 126.)’

But one might have expected, that it would have ‘pitied’ still more a visitant like Mr. Brand, to have beheld the alarming hand of reparation defacing these noble ruins, under the barbarous direction of a Master-general of the Ordnance; whose chief exploit, after all, has been, to transform, at a vast expence, a venerable ancient gateway into a trim rough-cast edifice covered with blue slate, where a few of the officers from the adjoining barracks, are accommodated with a gloomy and uncomfortable lodging.

11. *History of the town as a borough.*—Newcastle was first converted into a borough by W. Rufus, who according to Brady, began the system of granting this kind of immunities; a system very proper in these times, as it at once weakened the feudal tenures, and gave, as it were, a beginning to commerce; which thus obtained protection from the crown against the arbitrary power of the feudal lords and barons. How far they have not, in later times, operated very strongly the contrary way, and proved some of the greatest checks to the extension

ension of trade, we pretend not to determine; but we think the supporters of the affirmative side of the question might draw many arguments from the work before us.

Our author has collected, with most patient industry, every grant, charter, &c. with every rent, duty, toll, or tax, payable by or to the corporation of Newcastle. The charter of which we have the most circumstantial account is that granted by Ed. I. (p. 155—160). That by which Newcastle is made a county is granted by Hen. IV. (p. 170). In page 190-2, we have some curious remarks on the civil courts in Newcastle. Two odd punishments are here mentioned as in use during the common-wealth, viz. for scolds, by putting the branks, an iron frame with a sharp point, which, being fixed under the tongue, prevented them from speaking; and for drunkards, by making them walk in a tub, called the drunkard's coat, through the streets of the town. We have no doubt there is no longer any occasion for the former; but why has the latter been laid aside?—In 1684, this town, with many others, surrendered its charter to Charles II. and received a charter of confirmation, on condition that the mayor, recorder, sheriff, and town-clerk, might always be in the king's power to appoint or confirm; James II. very soon after, made a most arbitrary use of this power, by filling the corporation with Papists (p. 195).—In 1713, the receipts of the corporation were 8,056l. 1s. 1¼d. in 1780, including the sums sunk with them for lives, 25,699l. os. 10½d. (p. 197).

Next follows a complete list of representatives, from 1283, when first called by Ed. I. and of the recorders, from 1466 (p. 198—216).

We next find a history of the different incorporated commercial companies.

1. The merchant adventurers, instituted by K. John. Among the multitude of exemptions, tolls, goods allowed to trade in, &c. &c. we find nothing very curious, except some of the acts relating to the behaviour of apprentices, which exhibit an interesting picture of former dress and manners. In 1554, an act for the apparel of apprentices, inveighs against the excesses of the times, 'What dysfeng, cardeng, and mummyng; what typling, daunfenge, and braseng of harlots! what garded cotes, jagged hose lyned with filke, and cut shoes! what use of glitternes by night, what wearynge of berds! what daggers ys by them worne crosse overthwarte their backs, that theis theire dooings are more cumlye and decent for rageng ruffians, than seemlie for honest apprentizes," (p. 227).—In 1603, they are not to carde, dice, daunce or mum, nor use any mulick, either by nyght or day, in the streetes. They are not to wear any velvet or lace on their apparel, neither any silk

garters, silk or velvet girdles, silk points, worsted or Jersey stockings, shoe-strings of silk, pumpes, pantofles or cork shoves, hats lined with velvet, nor double cypress hat-bands, or silk strings, nor clokes and daggers, neither any ruffled bands but falling bands plain without lace, stiche, or any kind of sown work, neither shall they wear their hair long, nor locks at their ears like ruffians," (p. 231).—In 1649, "every apprentice shall cut his haire from the crown of his head, keepe his foreheade bare, his locks shall not reach below the lap of his eare, and the same length behind: no beaver hats nor castors; no cutts, boot-hos-tops, or culloured shoves, or shoves of Spanish lether, long neb'd shoves or boots; noe silk garters at all, nor shove-strings better than ferret or cotton ribbin; no gloves but plaine, *no boots but when they ride* *. On the 7th of December, three apprentices, 'shewing themselves disobedient and very obstinate,' were first in open court (where a dish is said to have been kept, by the edge of which their hair was cut round) 'made exemplary by shortninge of their hayre,' and then imprisoned upon short allowance. The formal appearance of these disfigured youths provoked even the satire of these formal times; for, we find a brother of the society complained of for mocking them, and calling them 'the company's coued tuppis,' in the coarse and homely language of that age (p. 234).

2. *The Society of Hojmen* †. This article is introduced with very imperfect notices concerning coal and the coal trade, which this society conducts. The author adopts the hypothesis, 'that coal of whatever kind is of vegetable origin, and that all its strata are either great collections of trees compacted together, or large forests, thrown down by decay of time, and afterwards buried by some of the more violent changes to which the globe is liable; or other inflammable substances, charred perhaps by the subterraneous fires, and incorporated with sulphur and bitumen.' This hypothesis he endeavours to support, by the authority of Doctors Black, Toulmin, Moyes, Morand, &c. whose arguments seem to be these two, that coal is sometimes found of a texture resembling wood, and that charred wood has often been found among coal. With respect to the former, the regularity with which many beds of coal break into cubical, and sometimes rhomboidal pieces, with shining surfaces,

* Such an order as this might be of use now.

† These seem to be first appointed by 5 Hen. IV. c. 9 (1404), which enacts 'that in everie porte sufficient hoostes shall be assigned to the same merchants, who shall dwell in none other place, &c.'—Camden gives the following etymon, 'from Oustmanni, east-men, traders from the east:' and it appears, from the earliest entries in the society's books, that the stranger arriving to buy coal, is called the 'oalle.' n. p. 270.—This society are also called Fitters, n. p. 272.

might

might tempt one much sooner to believe, if any thing inflammable be known to crySTALLISE, that coal was the produce of crySTALLISATION ; and as for the latter, it seems to be just as conclusive as the argument frequently urged, to prove that all brimstone is of animal origin, because animals are often found among it ; nay, not so much so, because animals are found to generate calcareous earth, but wood produces nothing like coal. Besides, many of Mr. Brand's examples are equally conclusive, to prove, that free-stone is of vegetable origin : Mr. Morand's account of the Luxemburg mines, particularly ; where the wood found among the coal is become coal, but that among the strata of stone, above the coal, was stone, p. 244. See also the instance of the pine-tree at Musselburgh, completely petrified branches, leaves, and cones, in the solid rock, p. 246.

We have less to object against his arguments for the ancient use of coal, from Theophrastus *, from beds of cinders found under Roman stations †, from coal being a Celtic word, &c. ‡ though we think there is a good deal in Mr. Arnot's arguments, that if coal had been known so early, the working of it would not have continued in so rude a state ; still more, that so useful a fuel, once known, would not have been in danger of being lost again ; yet we find, in the *Leges Burgorum, made at Newcastle, 1140*, a particular privilege is granted to those who brought wood, turf, or peat, into boroughs, but no mention is made of coal : and, lastly, that the Romans, who so well understood and minutely described the state of the island, should never once have mentioned coal §.

The first mention of coal in the History of England is in a grant of Hen. III. 1239, where the townsmen have a charter to dig for coals (p. 252).

In 1306, the use of it was prohibited by Parliament, as a public nuisance, corrupting the air with its stink and smoak (p. 254).—How very differently have succeeding parliaments thought of it ! As early as 1421, it appears to be a trade of great importance, and that a duty of two-pence per chaldron had been imposed upon it for some time.—In 1599, the queen, requiring the payment of all arrears of this duty, it was found to have been so long neglected, that they were unable to comply with her request, on which the fraternity of Hostmen was incorporated, upon condition that they should pay one shilling

* Hill's Theophrastus on Gems. p. 62.

† Though it appears, from our author, that Morton, in his *Nat. Hist. of Northamptonshire*, is not certain whether the cinders he found are not the cinders of an iron-work, p. 251.

‡ Whitaker's *Hist. of Manchester*.

§ Arnot's *Hist. of Edinburgh*, p. 82—85.

per chaldcr exported from thence to the free people of England for ever (p. 271). Though they say they did this from gratitude for her Majesty's incorporation *.—In 1602 there were 28 acting fitters, who had 85 keels, and vended 9,080 chalders of coals, at from ten to eight shillings per chaldron.—In 1616, 13,675 tons of coals were shipped from Newcastle.

Many of King Charles II'd's arbitrary acts respecting coal, appear to have been no inconsiderable part of that unhappy monarch's political sins. In 1627, a charter was granted to three persons for the sole practice of a new invention of smelting iron with coal.—In 1630, an exclusive grant was obtained by David Ramsay, to raise water from coal mines. The same year the king let the duties on coal to farm.—In 1634, solely by his own authority, he imposed a duty of four-pence per chaldron on all coal imported into foreign parts.—In 1637, he granted to Sir Thomas Tempest and others, the sole power of selling coal from the Tyne for 21 years.—And, in the year following, erected another company of monopolizers, revoking, probably, the former grant, p. 280—284.

From various documents it appears, that one of the most distressing circumstances to the parliament party, was the occasional possession of Newcastle by the Royalists: the city of London being at those times in absolute want of fuel.

Grey's account, in his *Chorographia* of the coal-trade in 1649, is well worth transcribing; 'There come sometimes into this river for coales, 300 sayle of ship. Many thousand people are employed in this trade: many live by working them in the pits; many live by conveying them to the Tyne; many are employed in conveying them in keels from the stathes aboard the ships: one coal-merchant employeth 500 or 1000 in his works, yet for all his labour, care and cost, can scarce live of his trade: nay, many of them hath consumed and spent great estates, and died beggars. I can remember one of many that hath raised his estate; many I remember that hath wasted great estates.—Some south gentlemen have, upon great hope of benefit, come into this country to hazard their monies in coal-pits. Master Beaumont, a gentleman of great ingenuity and rare parts, adventured into our mines with his 30,000*l.* who brought with him many rare engines not known then in these parts; as the art to boore with iron rods, to try the deepness and thickness of the coale; rare engines to draw water out of pits; waggons with one horse to draw down coales from the pits to the stathes, &c. Within few years he consumed all his money, and rode home upon his light horse.

* Appendix, p. 659.

In 1667, three shillings per chalder were laid upon Newcastle coals, to be applied to the rebuilding of the city of London.

In 1677, the reversion of twelve-pence a chaldron was granted to the duke of Richmond.

In 1699, two hundred thousand chaldron of coals were shipped from Newcastle to London.

In 1710, a duty was laid upon coal, for building fifty churches in London.

In 1740. 13 Geo. II. c. 21. enacted, that treble damages should be given for damaging collieries by water.

The following is the average account of coal annually shipped from Newcastle 1770—1776.

To London and coastwise 351,000 chaldrons.

British plantations 2,000 chaldrons.

Foreign parts, 27,000.

Duty to the crown on 351,000.—167,000l.

Medium revenue of the Duke of Richmond, 17,550l.

(p. 310).

Next follow the twelve companies, called Mifteries, or Metiers, *i. e.* trades; and the fifteen companies, called By-trades. Of which latter, the first and most important is the company of Mariners, called also the Trinity-house: this respectable fraternity have a revenue of about 800l. per ann. and support within their house 12 widows, and about 30 extra poor.

From these we proceed to the officers and servants of the corporation, with the free customs of its bürgeßes.

We now come to one of the most curious parts of the book, entitled, Particulars relating to the Corpus Christi, or Miracle Plays, anciently performed by the trading companies of Newcastle, (p. 369). These appear to have been the first and earliest of our dramatic performances; they were acted in the open air; and are many of them reported to have been very indelicate and obscene. They had their use, however, in impressing on a rude and unlettered people the chief histories of their religion, and also in softening their manners, and creating insensibly, a regard for other arts than those of bodily strength and savage valour.

Each company had its particular play. The Black-smiths played the Purification; the Glaziers, the play of the Kings of Cologne; the Barbers, the Baptysing of Christ; the House-carpenters, the Burial of Christ, 'which (who) anciently belonged to their fellowship;' the Masons, the Burial of our Lady St. Mary the Virgin; the Millers, the Deliverance of the Children of Israel; the Slaters, the offering of Isaac.

Of the Fullers and Dyers we are not told the play; but we have the following curious item in their books. A. D. 1561.

First, for rehearfall before the craft, 10s.

It. for paynting the geyre, 10s.

It. for 3 yerds and ad. lyn cloth for God's coot, 3s. 2d. ob.

It. the hoyffe and coot making, 6d. &c.

The Merchant Adventurers were concerned in five plays.

Mr. Brand has sought in vain for copies of the plays in all the archives of the several societies (p. 372). After the reformation, they were probably destroyed as reliques of Popish superstition. One only, published by Bourne, is preserved. It is entitled, *Noah's Ark, or, the Shipwright's ancient play or dirge*. The dramatis personæ, are God, an Angel, Noah and his wife, and the Devil. The play begins with *God's directions to Noah by his angel*.

Bid him go make a ship.

Of stiff board and great,

Altho' he be not a wright,

Therefore bid him not lett,

He shall have wit at will,

Be that he come thereto;

All things I him fulfil,

Pitch, tar, seam, and rowe.

The angel having delivered his message, Noah sets about the work; on which the devil hastens to Noah's wife, persuades her he is about a business which will prove their destruction, and gives her an intoxicating drink which will make her husband forget his work. Noah, though he drinks enough to feel its effects, persists in his purpose of observing the divine directions, on which the devil departs with violent imprecations.

111. *Annals and historical Events*; from the building of Hadrian's Vallum, to the present time. In the time of the Romans it was called Pons Œlii; during the heptarchy, Monckchester; after the time of Rufus, Newcastle. It was honoured with repeated visits from almost every one of our monarchs, during the continuance of disputes between England and Scotland; and was the scene of many conferences and treaties between them and the Scottish kings.—From the year 1257, the mayors, bailiffs, and sheriffs are regularly mentioned.—In 1311, King Edward II. retreated to Newcastle from the formidable confederacy of the barons against Piers Gaveston; but was obliged to fly from hence, by sea, to Scarborough, leaving his queen pregnant, and near her delivery, behind him, (p. 408).—In 1333, Edw. III. held a rendezvous of military

military forces at Newcastle, on which occasion the following remarkable incident, highly characteristic of the manners of that superstitious age, happened at Durham. 'The queen having followed the king to that city, was conducted to him through the gate of the abbey to the prior's lodgings, where having supped and gone to bed with her royal lord, she was soon disturbed by one of the monks, who rudely intimated to the king, that St. Cuthbert by no means loved the company of her sex. The queen, upon this, got out of bed, and having hastily dressed herself, went to the castle for the remaining part of the night, asking pardon for the crime she had been inadvertently guilty of against the patron saint of their church, (p. 408).—In 1388, the Scots invaded England. All the military persons of the country were ordered to assemble at Newcastle; before which the enemy sat down. Sir Henry and Sir Ralph Percy, 'the gallant sons of the earl of Northumberland, were ever the foremost at the barriers of the town for skirmish.' In one of these rencounters, Sir Henry Percy, fighting hand in hand with the earl of Douglas, lost his standard, which he made a vow to recover, and for that purpose pursued the Scots, on their return, as far as Otterburn, where a most bloody battle was fought, in which the English were rather unfortunately than dishonourably defeated*.'

In 1461, after the fatal battle of Towton, King Henry VI. the queen and young prince, with their adherents, retreated to Newcastle.

In 1503, Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry VII. passed in grand procession through Newcastle, on her way to her husband James IV. This town, during the civil wars between Charles I. and his parliament, appears to have changed hands very frequently.—In Aug. 1644, began a very close siege, by the Scots, in the interest of parliament, which, after very brave actions performed on both sides, terminated in favour of the besiegers on the 22d of October, (p. 468).

In 1646, the king having put himself under the protection of the Scottish army at Newark, was conducted to Newcastle, where the well known treaty was concluded between the Scots and parliament by which he was delivered into the hands of his enemies, on payment of 200,000*l.* to the Scots (p. 470-2).

Nov. 24, 1648, a remarkable petition was presented from the garrisons of Newcastle, Berwick, &c. charging the king with being the occasion of seven years unnatural war, and the principal contriver, abettor, and manager of all the bloodshed, massacres, &c. in England and Ireland; declaring that all other

* P. 418. See also Major's Hist. Scotland, p. 267. Q. Is this the foundation of the ancient story of Chevy Chase?

endeavours were to little purpose while the delinquent was untouched; it being not an acceptable sacrifice to the justice of God to offer him ought else, while the Agag was spared, (p. 476).

In 1650, a person came from Scotland, pretending to know those wretches who, for the sake of hurting their neighbours, had sold themselves to the devil. His method of examining these pretended witches, was shockingly indecent. Thirty women were brought into the town-hall and stripped, and then openly had pins thrust into their bodies, and most of them were found guilty. 'One wizard and fourteen witches (*horresca referens*) in company with nine thieves and a witch from the county of Northumberland, were executed on the Town Moor, Aug. 21, this year, (p. 478).

From the year 1666 the sheriffs for Northumberland, and judges of assize, are regularly mentioned.

In 1684, Judge Jeffries was upon this circuit, when he indulged himself in his usual drunken excesses. 'A certain gentleman invited him to a plentiful entertainment, which gained his guest's wond'rous opinion. "They tell me," said he, "such a one is a Whig, but I find he is an honest drunken fellow." There had lately been a meeting broken up at Mr. Barnes'; but Barnes himself escaped: Jeffries was huge witty upon all the prisoners, but it fretted him sadly he could not catch that Barnes, (p. 496 n.).

Aug. 13, 1688. An address to the king, for the inestimable blessing of a Prince of Wales, was prepared, but not presented. —In November the town declared for the Prince of Orange, and pulled down a beautiful statue of James II. (p. 499).

On Tuesday night, March 6, 1716, was seen a remarkable aurora borealis, which was interpreted, by the Jacobite party, as an omen of God's displeasure against the ruling powers for beheading the rebel lords: a pleasant countryman, by an equally justifiable interpretation, is said to have declared, that it was an illumination and public rejoicing in the heavens for the defeat of King George's enemies, (p. 512).

In 1740, a dreadful riot happened, occasioned by the scarcity so general through the kingdom after the great frost, in which the mob, by mismanagement in the magistrates, got the better of them, broke open the town's court and chamber, destroyed many important writings and accounts, carried off a large sum of money, &c. (p. 521).

In 1743, two old men, father and son, were subpœna'd upon a trial at Newcastle: the father was 135, the son 95; both of them hearty, and retained their sight and hearing, (p. 524).

In 1745 and 6, great exertions were made to put the town into a complete state of defence. Fortunately, the rebels took a different course, (526-30).

In 1783. July 28, died Mr. Thomas Umfreville, parish clerk of St. John's; the true and sole representative of one of the greatest names and most illustrious families of the North. The pedigree, now in the hands of his son, William Umfreville, tallow-chandler, traces back the family to Robert Umfreville, lord of Tours and Vian, in the time of William the Conqueror.—*Quid stemmata faciunt?*

The appendix to this vol. contains various charters, grants, acts, &c. &c.—In p. 678, &c. Mr. B. makes some amends for the deficiency of his former accounts of the coal trade, by the addition of 'Notices containing the winning and working of coal.'—We have attempted to analyse them in what follows.

1. *Boring and sinking.* No lease is taken of ground not previously explored by boring. This is performed by iron rods, each three or four feet long, and an inch and a half square, lengthened out by being screwed together as the hole increases in depth. The chisel, at the end, is two inches and a half broad. The mode of operation is to lift the rods a little, and then let them fall again, turning them at the same time gently round. The chisel is occasionally screwed off, and a scoop put on, which brings up the dust or pulverised matter, and shews as well the kind of stratum as the exact depth.

2. *Dip and Rise of the Strata.* The strata of coal are seldom found to lie in a horizontal situation, but generally incline or descend. If the inclination be to the south-east, as almost always about Newcastle, it is called a south-east dip; and the ascent, or rise, is to the contrary point. The regularity of this dip, and of the strata, is often broken by fissures, sometimes perpendicular, sometimes oblique. These are called dikes, if of considerable width; if less, hitches, or troubles. Dikes are veins, in metallic countries; and here are generally filled with heterogeneous matter; according to the nature of which they are called *clay-dikes*, *stone-dikes*, &c.—The strata on the other side of the dike are sometimes thrown higher or lower; in the one case, it is called a rise-dike, or up-cast; in the other, a dip-dike, or down-cast.

3. *Hewing the Coal.* The hewer first digs as far as he can into the bottom of the stratum; then nooks or corners off the part measured out; and afterwards brings the whole down by a wedge and mallet. His wages are two shillings and eight-pence for a score of corves (the basket in which they are brought up, containing four bushels and a half), which a good workman will hew in a day.—In high seams the coals are drawn by horses, in the lower by boys.—An over-man daily views the places where the men have wrought, sees that the pit is clear of sulphur, &c; and the deputy-overman superintends the pillars of coal that are left to support the roof, sets up props where there is danger, &c.

4. *Foul Air.* Of this there are two kinds, the black-damp, or styth; and the fire-damp.—The fire-damp issues out of crevices, and mixes with the air in the mine. It readily takes fire, with a terrible explosion, on the application of flame, but not with sparks; hence the use of steel mills where it abounds. Wherever there is a good circulation of air, these damps cannot accumulate. If at any time this circulation is not brisk enough, a large fire, called a lamp, is placed
at

at the bottom of the pit, which, by rarefying the air, causes a quicker circulation.

5. *Gins and Steam Engine.* Here we are surprised to find nothing worth notice, notwithstanding the vast improvements which have been made of late years.

6. *Waggons and Waggon-ways.* These have been in use ever since 1676, when they are thus described by Lord Keeper North. "Rails of timber are laid from the colliery down to the river, exactly strait and parallel, and bulky carts are made with four rowlets, fitting these rails, whereby the carriage is so easy, that one horse will draw four or five chaldron of coals (at present 50 cwt.)—On an easy descent they run without horses; and sometimes a piece of wood, of the nature of a lever, called a convoy, is obliged to be applied to one wheel; and pressed upon it by the weight of the attendant, to retard the motion; by the friction of which it frequently takes fire."

Here ends the appendix. A few more 'notices' we have collected from different parts of the book, that we might complete the progress from the mine to the ships.

7. *Way-leaves*, p. 297. Another remarkable thing is their way-leaves; for when men have pieces of ground between the colliery and the river, they sell leave to lead coals over their ground; and so dear, that the owner of a rood of ground will expect 20l. per annum for this leave.—Life of Lord Keeper North.

8. *Staiths.* Store-houses into which the waggon-way is made, at such a height from the ground as to permit the coals to run from the waggons down a spout into the keels or ships, or else to fall down into the store-house, as occasion may require. These waggons, after being emptied, are brought back into the road or waggon-way by a turn-frame, and each is drawn back by a single horse.—Staith, *rape*, *ripa*, *littus*, *statio navium*.

9. *Keels*, p. 261. An ancient Saxon name for a ship or vessel. These are the lighters which carry the coal from the staith to the vessel. They are strong, clumsy, oval-boats, and carry twenty tons a-piece; they are navigated with a square sail, but generally by two very large oars, one at the side, plied by two men and a boy; the other, called the swape, at the stern, by a single man, serving both as oar and rudder.—When it is inconvenient to use either sails or oars, as in shallow water, they push them with long poles, called *Puys* (*appuyer Fr.*), set against the bottom.

This species of watermen are called keel-bullies; bully is also commonly used for brother, among the pitmen: probably from the obsolete adjective *boolie*, beloved.—A pauper, giving an account of himself and family before the parish officers, told them, *inter alia*, that his father, 'had brought up six of them bullies,' i. e. had brought up six sons. Such a clause in a deposition in the office at Bow-street would justly have alarmed a London audience.—The wives and daughters of this hardy race, who sweep the keels, and have the sweepings for their pains, are called keel-deeters. To deet signifies to wipe or clean.

We

We have no where found an account of the exact quantity of coal denoted by the word chaldron, either in London or at Newcastle. We are told indeed, p. 687, that the Newcastle chaldron is to the London as 8 to 15; from which we should conclude, that the Newcastle chaldron was rather more than half the London one; but the fact is, that eight Newcastle chaldron make fifteen at London.

We have sought in vain for a statement of the late disputes between the coal and ship owners and the London factors, which we should have expected in a treatise on the coal trade. We observe a book just advertised with this title, by a Mr. Beaumont, whether a descendant of the Mr. B. mentioned by Grey, 1649, we know not: perhaps we may obtain some information from him on this, and other subjects, which Mr. Brand has left short.

We must not conclude this article without observing, that the work is ornamented with thirty-four very excellent engravings, by Fittler, of various public edifices, antiquities, &c. besides two general views of the town, and a most accurate plan of Newcastle and Gateshead. We cannot help observing, that the work might have been furnished, at a much easier expence, with plates relating to the coal trade, such as plans of the workings, with the contrivances for circulation of air, sections of the strata, drawings illustrative of the difficulties occasioned by the dikes and troubles, engines used in the coal works, &c. Such things we have seen drawn ready to the author's hand, in the possession of various coal owners, who would, no doubt, upon a proper application, have cheerfully communicated them; and not improbably upon the same terms on which, very highly to the honour of the gentlemen concerned, these much more splendid and expensive plates have been presented to the work.

ART. IV. *A Treatise on the Coal Trade*. By Charles Beaumont. 4to. p. 64. pr. 5s. sewed. Robinsons. 1789.

WE have not learned so much as we expected from this pamphlet, but it may have its use among those whom it chiefly concerns. The author, after a long preamble on the importance of coal, points out the difference between the mines of England and Scotland, with their respective products; the former of which, he represents as lying more regularly horizontal, with few dykes or troubles; as furnishing a strong hot coal, full of bituminous matter, making a good second, and sometimes a third fire, with its cinders, and particularly adapted to the working of metals, and to manufactures in general. The strata of the Scotch coal-mines, he says, are very confused,
and

and much interrupted by dykes; the coal itself is a strong splint, without much bitumen, burns clearly, but makes no *cinders*; it is, therefore, fit only for chamber-fires, &c. though, he adds, (which we do not perfectly understand) when *coaked*, it answers well for founderies. The French and German coal are like the middling Scotch. Hence, he infers, that nothing can prevent the English coal having clearly the advantage, but the injudicious manner in which they are wrought. The improved method he proposes would certainly bring them down rounder, but we doubt whether it would make the difference he supposes.

His next proposal, is a tax upon coal exported into foreign parts, which raised so loud a clamour against Lord North. Having observed that the States of Holland raise a revenue of £50,000 from English coal imported, he asks, 'since it thus appears, that the Dutch manufacturer can afford 20s. a chaldron for it more than he pays to us, why should he not be made to pay at least a part of that additional price to our government, rather than to his own?' for he must have it; besides that this would be beneficial to the English manufactories, by encreasing the Dutch prices.

His third object is, to shew the unreasonableness of the tax of one shilling a chaldron laid exclusively upon the port of Newcastle. This tax was laid on when the Tyne was the only river which sent coals to London, but now it sends only one third; he, therefore, proposes, that it be extended to all the rivers in England, and the Tyne grant purchased, with crown-lands, from the Duke of Richmond; in which case it would produce 54,000*l.* net tax, as the customs would collect it.

Our author proposes, in the last place, to settle the differences between the coal owners and the London buyers. He observes, that the embarrassments of the coal owners have arisen from their having too many mines open at once, which being more than sufficient to supply the demand, the buyers resolved to receive no man's coal without a premium of one shilling a chaldron: the owners resolved to refuse this demand, but soon broke their engagement, and have never been able to shake off the yoke. To remedy this hardship, the author proposes that the price throughout the year be fixed at a certain rate, sufficient to allow all parties a profit, to which if the buyers should not agree, government be petitioned to enforce it.

This appears to us to be a very wild scheme indeed. The plain matter of fact, as the author has stated it, appears to be, that more are ready to sell than are inclined to buy; which must produce the same effect upon this as upon every other article of commerce, viz. a diminution of price, whether directly, or in the form of a premium, is a matter of little importance. If the price be sunk so low that the article is sold to a
loss,

loss, the only remedy that we can conceive, must consist in less being sent to market. And if the coal owners cannot agree in regulating the quantity they are respectively to send, or have not sufficient honour to stand by the regulation when agreed to, which their conduct respecting the premium appears to render doubtful, we see not how the trade can be reduced into its proper state but by great loss to the whole, and by ruin to many individuals. And these are consequences which it principally concerns themselves to prevent.

V. F.

ART. V. *Transactions of the Society instituted at London for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, with the Premiums offered in the Year 1789.* Vol. VII. 8vo. p. 401, with a Print of the Statue of Venus, engraved by Bartolozzi, and four plates. pr. 4s. sewed. Doddsley, &c. 1789.

OUR readers are already so well apprized of the nature of this society, and the objects of its pursuit, that it is unnecessary for us to enlarge on them; we shall, therefore, without further preface, proceed to give a concise account of the matters contained in this volume.

After a short preface, follows the communications relating to AGRICULTURE, a considerable number of which respect the planting of useful timber trees, which was an early object of the society's attention, and never has been lost sight of. The first, is an attestation, that the Lord Bishop of Landaff, between the 24th of June, 1787, and the 24th of June, 1788, caused to be planted 48,500 larches, for which he obtained the gold medal. The next is a similar attestation, that John Sneyd, Esq. did cause to be planted, between May, 1784, and May, 1786, 132,212 timber trees of various sorts (a particular list of which is subjoined, among which is 30,000 oaks) for which the gold medal was also adjudged.

Mr. William Jones, of Foxdown-hill, Somerset, in the following article communicates observations on the uses of the wood of the Spanish chestnut, in which we meet with nothing new, as the value of this wood has been long known.

The succeeding article contains a particular and interesting account of the experiments of Mr. Boote, of Atherstone upon Stower, on the cultivation of corn in narrow drills, by means of Mr. Cooke's drill machine, on a large scale; being a continuation of the experiments by the same gentleman, communicated in the former (6th) volume of these Transactions. The extent of ground thus cultivated, in this third year (1788) of his practice of the drill-husbandry, was three hundred and twenty-three acres; viz. wheat, seventy; barley, ninety; oats, seven; beans, fifty-two; peas, twenty-eight; turnips, seventy; cole, six acres. He still finds the crops by this mode of cul-

ture,

ture, to be considerably more abundant than by the broad cast mode of culture.

Earl Fife, in the succeeding article, relates the success of a comparative trial of the following plants, reared on the same soil as a food for cattle, the produce of an hundred square yards of each, when weighed, was found to be as follows:

			st.	lb.
Common turnips,	-	weight	92	4
Carrots,	-	-	95	0
Root of scarcity,	-	-	77	0
Turnip-rooted cabbage,	-	-	88	0

The much commended *root of scarcity*, does not, from this trial, appear to deserve the high praises it has obtained.

Next follows, an attested account of 400 plants of the rheum palmatum, or true rhubarb, being cultivated by John Ball, surgeon in Wilton, Somersetshire, for which the gold medal was adjudged. The plant, in this instance, seems to have been cultivated with great care, in a masterly manner. It will be of use to communicate in some future volume, the result of this experiment.

In the succeeding article, Matthew Stephenson, of Smardall-hall, Westmoreland, Esq. communicates an account of the improvement of 325 acres of moorland, which was let from 1s. 6d. to 2s. per acre, in its natural state. The soil, a light mould from five to seven inches deep; substratum, a strong yellow clay; the natural produce, a strong bent grass, mixed with stunted ling. We regret that our limits prevent us from giving the particulars of this very important improvement, which was executed at less expence, and returned a greater profit, than any other experiment of the same sort, that has fallen under our observation.

Thomas White, of Relford, Esq. next communicates a letter from Mr. Drummond, of Blaer Drummond, in Scotland, son to the late Lord Kaims, giving the measurement of a larch tree now growing on his estate. The tree was planted in 1734, and measured in winter 1787-8. Its total height is ninety-seven feet, and its total cubic contents, one hundred and thirty feet. The wood of this tree is well known to be of very great value, and from this instance, it is plain it is a very quick grower; and as it is an ornamental, as well as an highly useful tree, it well deserves to become a favourite with English planters. No attempt has yet been made, that we have heard of, to extract turpentine from this tree in any part of Britain, though it is well known, that the Venice turpentine is the natural produce of it.

The most important paper under this department is an account of the drainage of Martin Meer, a large lake in Cumberland, by Mr. Eccleston, 'by which, three thousand six hundred and thirty-two acres of land have been gained, and protected

ted from the inundations of the sea.' In this paper is narrated, the unsuccessful attempts that have been made by various individuals, for half a century past, to effect this great work, which was at length happily executed by means of an ingenious contrivance of Mr. Gilbert (engineer to his Grace the Duke of Bridgewater) by which the mud that used formerly to accumulate in the channel, in consequence of its being stoppt by the sea at high water, is now effectually washed away, and the channel preserved clear to its greatest depth of level at all times. Such readers as are interested in undertakings of this nature, will derive much information from the perusal of this memoir, not only in respect to the great drainage already specified, but also to the means of effecting the lesser drains in this soft swampy soil, and the converting it to useful purposes, as the draining becomes more complete, and the soil firmer in length of time.

In a supplement to this paper, we meet with an account of a particular disorder that broke out among the horned cattle, in the year 1780, at Standish, near Wigan, which was there called the *byon*. It proved very fatal to those who were attacked by it; but fortunately it did not continue long in those parts, and seems now to have entirely disappeared.

Sir Joseph Banks, in the succeeding paper, communicates a recipe, that has, upon trial, proved to be very successful in curing the scab in sheep. 'This mode of curing, Sir Joseph observes, was brought into that part of Lincolnshire by Mr. Stephenson, of Mareham, and is now so generally received, that the scab, which used to be the terror of the farmers, is no longer regarded with any apprehensions. The cure is effected by applying an ointment (the same as the *unguentum cæruleum* of the shops) to the skin of the animal, by a particular process he there describes. It costs about five shillings a score, of these large sheep; and is not found to injure the wool in the smallest degree, but rather to improve it. The thanks of the society were justly given to Sir Joseph Banks for this important communication.

The papers in this class are concluded by a letter from Mr. Wagstaff, on the uses of the *river conserva* as a manure. This gentleman concludes from several trials, (which were not made with all the accuracy we could wish) that it is a manure of very great value. It certainly deserves the attention of all those who have an opportunity of trying it, though its real value does not seem to be yet accurately ascertained.

The only paper in this volume, under the title, *Polite Arts*, is a description of the pocket memorandum book, invented by Mr. Bromely, for the use of persons deprived of eye sight. Every humane person must behold with pleasure, the exertions that are made in France and in Britain to add to the enjoyments of those numerous persons who have the misfortune to be deprived

of eye-sight, and to render them useful members of society. The proofs exhibited in France, of what they are capable of performing, is truly surprising. We cannot help regretting the failure of that beneficent plan which was agitated some time ago in Britain for the relief of the blind; nor can we cease to wish that it may be again revived under happier auspices at some future period.

Under the head MANUFACTURES, occurs a further account, continued from the last volume, of the process for making coarse paper from the bark of *withins*, by Mr. Greaves, and a computation of the price at which it can be afforded, viz. 5s. 8d. a ream, in place of 8s. 6d. the price at which paper of the same size and quality can be sold for when made of old ropes. Pastboard made of old ropes, sell for 25l. a ton; the same, made of *within* bark, can be afforded for 17l. per ton. We also here learn, that Mr. Davies, of Salisbury-court, Fleet-street, London, has arrived at such perfection in the art of making fine marbled paper, as to equal any that can be imported from abroad.

The next paper, is on the management of silk-worms, by Mr. Swayne, being a continuation of his remarks on the same subject, published in the sixth volume of the Transactions of the Society of Arts. It contains many judicious observations; among other particulars, he here describes a very neat and commodious portable stage for feeding the worms, which promises greatly to facilitate that business, illustrated by a plate. Mr. Swayne thinks the climate of England is peculiarly favourable for this insect, as it is less subject to great heats, to violent storms, and to great shocks of thunder, (all of which are remarkably hurtful to the worms) than the continental countries in which they have hitherto been chiefly reared. Mulberry leaves, he thinks, the best food, and the black mulberry he prefers to the white; but he does not reject lettuce as useless. He also examines several other opinions that have been entertained respecting silk-worms, shewing that some of these are erroneous, and others well founded; and enters into several useful economical disquisitions respecting this manufacture, which our narrow limits prevent us from specifying.

In the next article, we are presented with an account of the singular attainments of a lady in the art of spinning wool. Miss Ann Ives, of Spalding, in Lincolnshire, has, by her ingenuity and perseverance in this art, been at last able to spin yarn, of English wool, to the uncommon fineness of *two hundred and sixty* skeins to the pound, each five hundred and sixty yards long; a degree of fineness that, we suppose, has never been equalled in any other part of the globe; and she hopes to be able to make yarn still finer than this. She spins it to this fineness by means of the spindle and distaff; she finds great difficulty in getting spindles made fine enough for her purpose;

the weight of one of her best spindles was thirteen grains, and the whirl nine grains, and it is difficult to get them of such small dimensions, turned quite true. We hope the ingenuity of this fair artist, will in time be attended with some peculiar benefits to our manufactures.

Under the department of MECHANICKS, we learn, from several claims adjudged to different persons for striking whales with the gun-harpoon, that this invention is likely to be attended with considerable benefits to our fisheries.

We are next presented with an account of a new invention of a machine, illustrated by a plate, for twitching wool, by Mr. Hugh Hughes. *Twitching*, is a particular and troublesome operation in the manufacture of baize, which, it seems, has been hitherto always performed by hand.

The following article gives an account of a kind of harrow, invented by Mr. Harriot, for smoothing turnpike roads, and filling up the ruts. This business it effectually performs on roads that consist of gravel alone, but it is not said that it would prove effectual where other materials have been used. This article is also illustrated by a plate, without which, neither this nor the foregoing machine could be fully understood.

The same may be said of the next article, which contains a description of a temporary rudder that may be constructed and fitted on at sea, in cases of emergency. It is the invention of Captain Pakenham, of the Merlin sloop of war, and was tried with all imaginable success by Captain Cornwallis of his Majesty's ship Crown, who bears ample testimony of its great utility.

The communications in this volume are concluded with some account of the prosperous state of the *Laurus Cinnamomi*, or true cinnamon tree in the island of Jamaica, communicated by Mr. George Wilson of that island, with a specimen of the bark, which appears to have as high a flavour as any that can be procured from the Dutch settlements. There is, therefore, little room to doubt that we shall soon be supplied with this valuable drug from our own colonies.

The succeeding parts of this volume contain a list of premiums adjudged in 1788, and those proposed by the society for 1789. Presents to the society. List of members, which we are glad to see continue to encrease, &c. &c. as in the former volumes. We have no room to doubt, that the society will continue their patriotic exertions for the farther improvement of this country.

No article occurs in this volume under the title CHEMISTRY. To what are we to ascribe the surprising neglect of this useful study in Britain, so essentially necessary to the improvement of many arts! Is it occasioned by the restrictions arising from the revenue laws? or to what other cause? We recollect to have

seen an apology somewhere, for some chemical experiments having been omitted because of the revenue laws. We have also heard of several chemical manufactures being abandoned in Britain, from the same cause. Who can tell the evils that may result to the community from such faulty political arrangements!

ART. VI. *The Gentleman Farmer's Pocket Companion, or, General Remembrancer; describing the best and most practicable Methods of improving Barren or Waste and worn-out Lands; with the Nature and Application of the most proper Grass Seeds; shewing the great Advantage to be derived from cultivating them. Also a full Description of the several Soils most advantageous for the Propagation of Artificial Grasses. To which is added, a copious Account of Manures, and their Application to different Soils.* By a Gentleman well versed in Modern Agriculture. 12mo. 51 pages. Price 1s. Forster. 1788.

THIS tiny volume, with the large title page, resembles a dwarf with an overgrown head. To those who hear the voice only, and see the countenance, he may pass for a hero of great prowess; but when the door is opened, and the curious visitant is admitted, he quickly perceives his mistake, and retiring hastily, is ready to call out *vox & preterea nihil*.

This work promises indeed much, but it performs next to nothing. We select the chapter on *clover* as a very favourable specimen.

* *Clover*, is the richest and best of grasses. Eleven pounds will sow an acre.

* To be sowed alone at Michaelmas, though it is mostly sown with oats or barley in spring.

* The soil best adapted to this seed, is dry and warm, rather than moist and cold.

* The hay must be mowed about the middle of May, when it begins to knot.

* Produce of seed from one acre, is generally about two bushels, sometimes more.

* Will last three years.

* * *A note of the author.*] Experience proves, that sowing artificial grass alone about Michaelmas, answers *much best*. The dropping wet from oats, or barley, will in general lessen the crop, when sown with larger grain.

Something, though little, may be made of this compendious chapter: but in general, things are not sufficiently discriminated, to admit of making any use at all of the few remarks that occur under the different heads the author touches upon. N. N.

ART. VII. *Travels in Spain: containing a New, Accurate, and Comprehensive View of the Present State of that Country.* By the

the Chevalier de Bourgoanne : *To which are added, Copious Extracts from the Essays on Spain of M. Peyron.* Translated from the French. Illustrated with Twelve Copper-plates. In Three Volumes. 8vo. 1530 pages. Price 1l. 1s. in boards. Robinsons. 1789.

THOUGH the public be already in possession of the remarks of several travellers in Spain, none of these, as is justly observed by the translator, preclude the present work, the author of which has principally directed his inquiries to a subject that has been but little attended to by former writers on that country, namely, the present state of its civil government, trade, and manufactures. The long stay of the Chevalier de Bourgoanne in Spain*, has enabled him to treat these subjects in a full and accurate manner. And, as to the fidelity and candour of the Chevalier de Bourgoanne, there is not any reason that we know of for calling them in question. On the contrary, there is in the volumes before us a very strong degree of internal evidence, that their author has been at pains to guard equally against partiality and prejudice, to enquire with diligence, and to report with truth.

The period of time, in the course of which our author made the observations which he has presented to the public, extends from 1782 to 1787, both inclusive. He sets out from Bayonne in France, travels thro' the province of Biscay, and the spacious plains of Old Castile, where he passes through Burgos, Segovia, and other cities, to Madrid. From Madrid he goes to Valencia, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Salamanca, and Toledo, with many other places of celebrity and importance too numerous to be here specified, as Valladolid, Cordova, Seville, &c. &c. In the course of his excursions, he describes the present situation of Spain, with regard to all those objects that are most interesting and important to a man of taste, a philosopher, a politician, and a merchant : the natural face of the country, in which parched and barren tracts of ground heighten the charms of verdant and rich fields, and a burning climate recommends the deep recesses of shady groves, and woods, springs, and the cool air of lofty mountains ; the natural productions of the districts through which he passes, mineral, vegetable, and animal ; the state of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce ; the laws, religion, finances, and military force of Spain ; the different councils that carry on the business of government, and enter into the constitution of the monarchy ; manners, customs, and amusements, particularly the theatres and bull-fights ; the patriotic societies

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* The Chevalier was secretary to the French embassy at the court of Spain ; and resides now, or at least resided lately, at Hamburgh, as French minister to the circle of Lower Saxony.

societies of Spain, that have given many useful hints to government for the improvement of both Old Spain, and the other branches of the Spanish empire; the wise policy of the present ministry of Spain, in encouraging agriculture, navigation, and manufactures, particularly those of wool and silk; in facilitating conveyance by the cutting of canals and the formation of roads; and in the establishment of certain regulations relating to commerce, and their vast territories in America; the different orders and ranks in society; the style or manner of living of the nobility, and also those of the court; Roman, Gothic, and Moorish antiquities; churches and other public buildings, with paintings and inscriptions; Spanish coins; and the state of the sciences, and arts, both liberal and mechanical.

The following particulars relating to the Biscayans, serve to give an idea of the spirit that begins to revive in Spain, and are interesting to all the friends of liberty and humanity.

The Biscayans, who are so different in their language and appearance from the Castilians, are not less so in the constitution of their country. Their province is considered, in many respects, as beyond the Spanish frontiers. Except a few restrictions, all merchandize enters, and is never examined but at the interior limits. The province has other privileges of which the people are very jealous, but so precarious a possession is liberty, that these have recently been more than once attacked. The most moderate government suffers with regret the shackles with which liberty confines its authority. If the king be in want of a certain number of soldiers or sailors, he notifies his wishes to the province, and the people find the most easy means of furnishing their contingency. The taxes which they pay have the name and form of free gifts (*donativo*). The monarch, by his minister of finances, requires a certain sum, the demand is discussed by the states, and, as it may be imagined, is always acquiesced in. They then levy the sum upon the different cities and communities, according to a register, which, like that of the *tailles* in France, suffers frequent modifications. There is one advantage derived from this mode of levying; the impost being paid from the city grants, individuals are not exposed either to seizure or constraint. It therefore seems, in the first point of view, that Biscay taxes itself; and, for want of the reality, the inhabitants cherish this shadow, to which, for some years past, they have made real sacrifices. The free commerce of Spanish America might be extended to their ports, if the Biscayans would allow the necessary duties to be there paid; but they look upon custom-house officers as the creatures of despotism, and their jealousy rejects the proffered benefits of the sovereign. They can make no commercial expedition to America, without preparing for it in a neighbouring port, and the most industrious people of Spain, the most experienced in navigation, and the best situated for such a commerce, sacrifice a part of these advantages to that of preserving some small remains of liberty. Thus, before the war which gave independence to British America, all the inhabitants of one of the provinces engaged themselves, by an oath, not to eat lamb, in order to increase the growth of wool, with the intention of rendering useless the manufactures of the mother country.

• Biscay

* Biscay is remarkable for its roads, cultivation, and privileges, but more particularly for the industry of its inhabitants. This is chiefly exercised upon iron, the principal production of the province. In order to improve this manufacture, the Biscayans have recourse to foreign correspondence, public lectures, and travelling. At Bergara there is a patriotic school, where metallurgy is taught by the most able professors. Students in chymistry have been sent to Sweden and Germany, where they have acquired, as well in the bowels of the earth as in the shops of manufacturers, such knowledge as has already been profitable to their country; for this word is not a vain sound in Biscay. The inhabitants, separated by their situation, language, and privileges, weak as they are, and confined within narrow limits, are called by nature and policy to feel the spirit of patriotism, and are obedient to the call. This noble sentiment produced the school of Bergara, where the nobility of the country are brought up at the expence of the states: and, not long ago, the same patriotism has given new employment to the industry of the Biscayans by digging the port of Deva.'

The Chevalier de Bourgoanne gives a very satisfactory and just account of the Spanish wool and sheep walks, concerning which, the world in general entertains an erroneous opinion.

'The wools of Spain, (he says) it is almost universally supposed, do not so much owe their fineness and quality to the temperate of the climate or the nature of the soil on which the sheep are bred, as the custom of driving the flocks to different parts of the country. Two observations, well supported, will, perhaps, be sufficient to invalidate this opinion. The first is, that in Estramadura there are flocks of sheep which are never driven to any other place, yet there is no sensible difference between their wool and that of those which are almost constantly in motion; the second is, that even in the environs of Segovia, there are small flocks which are never driven thence, and their wool is as fine as that of those which are. I have been assured by the people of this district, that of the twenty arrobes of fine wool grown there, near a third was produced by the stationary flocks. Whence therefore is derived the custom, so troublesome in various respects, of driving several millions of sheep all over Spain*? From that which causes, propagates and establishes abuses, from the private interest of the great, which, in Spain, gave birth to the ruinous privileges of the Mesta. This is a company of great proprietors of flocks, composed of rich religious communities, grandees of Spain, and opulent individuals, who find their account in feeding their sheep at the expence of the public in every season of the year, and who, by

U 3

impolitic

* In the sixteenth century the travelling sheep were estimated at seven millions: under Philip the Third, the number was diminished to two millions and a half. Ustariz, who wrote at the beginning of this century, made it amount to four millions. The general opinion is, that at present it does not exceed five millions. If to this number the eight millions of stationary sheep be added, it will make nearly thirteen million of animals, all managed contrary to the true interests of Spain, for the advantage of a few individuals. For the proprietors of stationary flocks also have privileges, which greatly resemble those of the members of the Mesta.

impolitic laws and regulations, have given sanction to a custom which necessity first established.

* The mountains of Soria and Segovia, condemned to sterility by the climate, soil, and the steepness of their sides, were formerly the asylum of some neighbouring flocks. At the approach of winter the place was no longer tenable. The sheep sought, in the circumjacent plains, more temperate air. Their masters soon changed this permission into a right, and united themselves by an association. This company in time became augmented by the addition of others, who, having acquired flocks, were desirous of enjoying the same privileges. The theatre was extended in proportion as the actors became more numerous, and, by degrees, the periodical excursions of the flocks were extended to the plains of Estremadura, where the climate was more temperate and pasturage in plenty.

* When the abuse began to appear intolerable, it had already taken deep root, and affected the interest of the most powerful citizens. The consequence is, that for more than a century, there has been a continued struggle between the company of the *Mesta* on one part, and the lovers of public good on the other. If a traveller passes through Spain in the month of October, when the sheep *trashumantes** arrive in great numbers in and about the plains of Estremadura and Andalusia; or in the month of May, when they return towards the mountains of old Castile; let him be informed that these animals have the right of pasturage on every common in their way, that the laws annex a breadth of ninety varas† to the road by which they pass; that the pastures which are reserved for them in Estremadura are rented at a very moderate rate, and that the proprietors have for a long time vainly solicited an augmentation of price; and if he be a Frenchman and pretend to the least philosophy, he will not fail to exclaim against such absurdities and barbarous ignorance, forgetting that in his own country, a Spanish traveller would have reason to be still more surprised at the multiplicity of our customs, at the strange and complex administration of our finances, and at the shameful inequality which subsists between the taxes and privileges of two neighbouring provinces, one of which pays an enormous price for salt, at the same time that the other obtains it at a very trifling expence.

In these reflections, our author gives a happy instance of his candour, and turn for just observation.

The gardens of the royal palace of St. Ildefonso, the grandest by all concurring accounts, and the most beautiful in the world, have been described by different hands, but never by a more faithful, though bold pencil, than that of the Chevalier de Bourgoanne. Among other traits of that sublime and varied scene, we find these:

* There are some situations in the gardens of St. Ildefonso, whence the eye takes in the whole of the greater part of these fountains, and where the ear is delighted with the harmony of their murmurs. The traveller who wishes to charm all his senses at once, must take his station on

* The Spanish name for the travelling sheep.

† The Spanish *vara* is to the ell of France as 5 to 7; ninety *varas* therefore make about forty toises or fathoms.

on the high flat ground in front of the king's apartment. In the thick part of the foliage are contrived two large arbours, from the top of which are seen twenty chrystal columns rising into the air, to the height of the surrounding trees, mixing their resplendent whiteness with the verdure of the foliage, uniting their confused noise to the rustling of the branches, and refreshing and embalming the air; if the traveller here experience no pleasing sensations, let him return home, he is utterly incapable of feeling either the beauties of art or nature.

The reader may here imagine my enthusiasm too extravagant. He is mistaken; let him follow me to the great reservoir of abundant and limpid waters. He will have to climb for some minutes, but will not regret the trouble he has taken. Let us suppose ourselves arrived at the long and narrow alley which takes up the whole of the upper part of the gardens; proceed to the middle, and turn your face toward the castle. To the vast horizon around you, no other boundaries are discovered but those which limit the human sight; these alone prevent you from discovering the Pyrenees. Observe the steeple which seems but a point in the immense extent: you will perhaps imagine it to be that of the parish church of St. Ildefonso; but, in reality, it is the cathedral of Segovia, at two leagues distance. The gardens, through which you have passed, become narrower to the eye. You suppose yourself close to the royal habitation; the alleys, fountains, and parterres have all disappeared; you see but one road which, in the form of a vessel, upon the prow of which you seem to stand, has its stern on the top of the palace. Afterward turn and take a view of the little lake behind you, of which the irregular borders do not, like what we call our English gardens, merely ape the disorder of nature. Nature herself has traced them, except on the side where you stand. This straight alley is united at each end to the curve which surrounds the reservoir. The waters, which stream in abundance from the sides of the mountain in front, meet in this reservoir, and thence descend by a thousand invisible tubes, to other reservoirs, whence they are spouted in columns or sheets upon the flowery soil to which they were strangers. The birds, drawn by their clearness, come to skim and agitate their crystal. The image of the tufted woods which surround them is reflected from their immoveable surface, as is also that of some simple and rural houses, thrown, as by accident, into this delightful picture, which Lorrain would have imitated, but, perhaps, could not have imagined.

In the volumes under review, we are agreeably entertained with the manners of the court, and of the principal nobility. Among many particulars we find these:

The king's dinner immediately succeeds, [to the audiences given to his own ministers and foreign ambassadors] at the end of which the whole *corps diplomatique* is again introduced. After having appeared at the tables of the princes and princesses, the ambassadors and envoys from foreign courts pass into the cabinet, where the monarch gives them a second audience. These audiences are repeated every day, and at the same hour, especially for the ambassadors of France and Naples, who, as family ambassadors, less frequently permit themselves to be absent from the court than those from other powers. The whole day is passed by the king of Spain with the same regularity and exactness. An hour after dinner he goes with the prince of Asturias to the chase, whence he does not return until the evening. Exact in

the duties of a father of a family, as well as in those of a sovereign, he goes to embrace his children, transacts business with one of his ministers, makes a party with some of the grandees who attend on his person, sups in private, and retires early to bed. At ten o'clock the most profound silence reigns in his palace.'

'The stability of ministers is one of the most remarkable particularities of the court of Spain. The monarch, who in disposing of these eminent places, consults public opinion, has hitherto had the rare happiness of never having his approbation dishonoured by the event. For which reason his ministers, without abandoning themselves to indolence, which this security might naturally produce, ardently labour to justify his confidence, and lose not that time which to them is so precious, in watching the latent springs of intrigue, and disconcerting its secret machinations. They have the courage to form vast projects, because they know that death only can prevent their execution, and are certain of finding a constant support in the benevolence of the monarch. Nothing diverts them from their principal object. Pleasures do not abound at the Spanish court; there are no theatrical representations of any kind; the amusement of the sovereign and the princes is confined to the chase. This is a great inconvenience to the idlers about the court, but very advantageous to public affairs. Ministers may there dedicate their whole time to their business, and give frequent audiences. I have often greatly admired the simple and regular life they lead; walking is almost the only amusement they permit themselves. Nothing less than the esteem of the nation and the love of public good can recompence them for so entirely renouncing the greater part of the pleasures of life.'

'There are no fortunes at Versailles to be compared to those of the duke of Medina Celi, the duke of Alba, the marquis of Penafiel, the count of Altamira, or the duke of Infantado. It must however be confessed that their external appearance does not correspond to their fortune. They do not ruin themselves as in France, in large and numerous houses, entertainments and English gardens. All these species of ostentation are in Spain yet in their infancy: theirs is more obscure, but perhaps not less expensive. Numerous sets of mules, rich liveries which are displayed but three or four times a year, and a multitude of servants, are their great articles of expence. The ill management of their estates, into which they seldom or never examine, considerably diminishes their income. They have stewards, treasurers, and various officers, like those of petty sovereigns. They keep in their pay, not only the servants grown old in their service, but those even of their fathers, and the families whence they inherit, and even provide for the subsistence of their children and relations. I was assured that the duke of Arcos, who died in 1780, maintained three thousand persons. This magnificence which disguises itself under the veil of charity, appears to have more than one inconvenience, it encourages idleness and causes mismanagement and extravagance, which while dependents are thus multiplied, must escape the most careful vigilance. Notwithstanding all this, there are fewer great families go to decay and ruin in Spain than in most other countries. The simplicity of their manners, their little taste for ostentation, and repugnance to ruinous arts, which, in other kingdoms, are found so seducing, conspire to preserve the estates of the Spanish nobility; but whenever the
grandees

grandees of Spain shall chuse to imitate the example of those of other courts, their splendour will be equal to that of the most brilliant. This may be judged of by the appearance some have made in foreign countries when the dignity of their nation required a display of magnificence. They have hitherto indeed but little sought the paths which lead to the gratification of ambition.

If our bounds had permitted, we would have laid before our readers, for their entertainment, and in honour of our ingenious and very respectable author, the accounts he has given of the state of religion in Spain, and of the inquisition, from vol. I. p. 316, to page 338 : and what he has written on the subject of national characters in general, and that of the Spaniards in particular, from Vol. II. p. 119, to page 167. Though the austerity of religious bigotry in Spain be considerably softened, in comparison of what it was in the last, and the beginning of the present century, we are struck with a painful surprize, when we read that so late as 1763, a particular auto de fé was celebrated at Ilerna, when several heretics were delivered to the flames ; that in 1778, Don Pablo Olavide, a native of Peru, who had been raised by his distinguished abilities to one of the first employments, and who by the most judicious and patriotic exertions proved himself to be so worthy of the favour and confidence of the state, was, after a tedious and rigorous confinement, condemned on account of some unguarded expressions relative to the abuses of clerical power, and the inutility, and even disadvantages of certain observances and ceremonies of the church, deprived of his property, condemned to an imprisonment of eight years in a monastery ; and that in 1780, some unhappy people of both sexes were committed to the flames, as forcerers and witches. But the Spanish court scrutinizes more strictly than ever, the proceedings of the holy office, and certainly not with an intention of increasing its severity.

If we examine the progress and vicissitudes of literature, we shall find that books of travels, as well as compositions of other kinds, are strongly tinged with the prevailing spirit and turn of the times in which they are written. In times of religious fanaticism, such travellers as *Peter Lithgow*, are forward to relate the dangers they encountered in taking every opportunity of declaring their own bigotry, and arraigning that of their adversaries. In the reign of philosophy the traveller is attached to Roman antiquity ; and in that of botany and natural history, to plants and animals. In the present enlightened and active period, when the influence of agriculture, manufactures, commerce, and general industry on politics and war, and the condition of nations is so well understood, we find that these begin to attract the attention of judicious observers in all the countries in which they sojourn. An instance of this we have lately had in this island, in *The Tour in England and Scotland*,
by

by Captain Newte of the East India Company, published above a year ago, and soon to be republished, as we are informed, with large additions, and other improvements. The same place that Captain Newte's Tour in England and Scotland in 1785, holds among our British travels, is due to the Chevalier de Bourgoanne's, among those that have for their subject the kingdom of Spain: as it is sensible, amusing, and practical; as it points out what men are doing, and what they ought to do; as it mixes ingenious speculation, with useful hints and information; and agreeably seasons the *utile* with the *dulce*. The most general conclusion to be drawn from the whole of the tour under review, the impression that remains uppermost in the mind, after an attentive perusal, is, that in Spain, every thing announces that this noble nation is about to rise, like a phoenix from her own ashes, and will soon be industriously employed in cultivating her soil, and animating her manufactures.

That this publication on the present state of Spain might be the more complete, and the most copious, as well as accurate, that we have as yet on the subject, a volume has been added, consisting of very copious extracts from the essays on, or travels in Spain, of Mr. Peyron, a late work of considerable merit, which has never yet appeared in English. Mr. Peyron has published many particulars that serve to illustrate the history and character of the Moors in Spain.

H. H.

ART. VIII. *Voyage dans les Pyrénées Françaises, dirigé principalement vers le Bigorre & les Vallées; suivi de quelques Verités nouvelles & importantes, sur les Eaux de Barèges & de Bagnères. A Journey to the French Pyrenees, &c. 8vo. p. 327. Paris, 1789. [Imported by De Boffe.]*

THIS traveller has contrived to intersperse, in an entertaining description of a charming romantic country, many historical facts and philosophical reflections; he has given us, if we may be allowed the concise phrase, the natural history of the place and its inhabitants, and his account is both instructive and interesting. The air of those majestic mountains must, we think, be calculated to recruit the exhausted powers of nature, and fill the mind with new images, than which, nothing can be more conducive to health.

ART. IX. *A Tour to the West of England, in 1788. By the Rev. S. Shaw, M. A. Fellow of Queen's College, Cambridge. 8vo. p. 602. pr. 6s. Boards. Robson and Clarke, 1789.*

THIS tour presents a diffuse account of the various places visited, and contains much information, and many curious historical facts: a traveller through the west of England, will find it very useful, and a more intelligent companion than a book

book of the roads. The author gives the following account of his plan, p. 1.

‘That the human mind is happiest, when its powers are in a progressive state of improvement, will not, I believe, be denied. Employment concordant with its high nature and exalted wishes, is absolutely necessary, to enable it to enjoy that blissful state of which it is capable even in this world. It is (to compare great things with small) like a well-formed instrument, whose tones and vibrations depend upon due tension and care, but whose harmony is enervated and destroyed by improper relaxation. He, therefore, who can exercise his intellectual faculties in a manner worthy of them, promotes materially his own happiness at least, and if he can add any thing, either instructive or entertaining to the knowledge of others, deserves no mean praise of the public.

‘It was with this conviction, that last summer, when the town began to grow dull and empty, and all nature was in its most beautiful state, we determined to undertake a tour over some part of England. To mark the varying face of countries; to behold the different states of edifices; to view the strong, the beautiful, and the stupendous buildings, which ages, so unlike our own, either awed by fear, or inspired by religion, have erected; to tread upon the ground, where heroes and sages have been nursed, or have resided; to behold with pensive regret, the decay of ancient families; to trace and to observe the rise and fall of cities, are intellectual exertions, that surely may delight the most cultivated minds.’

P. 7. ‘To accommodate those readers, whose taste cannot relish the unadorned narration of history, the following pages are occasionally interspersed with digressions of fancy, and descriptions of the muse, but plain facts and common occurrences are faithfully and simply minutely as they were observed.

‘If novelty has any charms in the composition of a Tour, the course this has taken may, without vanity or self-importance, claim some degree of merit. Numerous have been the descriptions of the North of England and Scotland, while the Western beauties of this Isle lie almost unnoticed, at least in any regular and extensive route. And tho’ they cannot boast the same sublime features of lake and rock, yet they display an infinite variety of other objects, with no small share of the romantic and beautiful.’

To set off from a centre, he begins with London. We cannot pretend to accompany him to every seat and town, but we shall point out the counties, and select a few specimens of the work as we go post after him. He traces the origin of the castles and most conspicuous seats, and of the inhabitants, not forgetting their marriages and intermarriages, &c. &c. Middlesex afforded him much amusement, and many well-known seats are described, their pleasure grounds, furniture, pictures, &c. with anecdotes of the noble owners, and numerous reflections on the instability of sublunary things, and the changes which happened to buildings, trees, and men. Essex, Kent, Buckinghamshire, Oxfordshire, Gloucestershire, Worcester-shire, Herefordshire, Monmouthshire, Somersetshire, Devon-shire,

shire, Cornwall, Dorsetshire, Hampshire, Surry, are all leisurely surveyed in the same manner. The different manufactories are specified, and the account of the mines, collected from Dr. Watson's chemical essays, with the author's own descriptions and observations, is by far the most interesting part of the work; indeed the author deserves praise for his indefatigable diligence in collecting and arranging information, and many future travellers will owe him thanks. The account of the mines is too long for insertion; our readers already know what the work contains, and our extracts will be selected to shew how he treats the various subjects. The two following will give an idea of his style of description, p. 195 and 258.

‘ We next passed some iron works on our left, called Bishop's-wood-furnace, belonging to a company at Ross and Bristol; the scene here greatly improves, and the stream flows through a winding avenue of richer cloathing. In the reach below this, is Ledbroke colliery, a very plentiful mine and of good quality; which supplies Ross, and various places, at 13s. per ton. After so much grandeur and tranquility, this busy contrast upon the banks of the wharf produced a new and lively effect. A little lower on the right, stands Court field, an ancient pile, with an artificial ruin above, belonging to Mr. Vaughan. A few fine deer were bounding on the ridgy banks; the parish church in miniature, just below, is truly picturesque; it is called Welch Bicknor, to distinguish it from another village of the same name about two miles below, on the opposite side of the river in Gloucestershire, which now only divides the two counties, but was formerly the boundary between the Welsh and English; according to this verse of Necham.

“ Inde vagos Vaga Cambrenses, hinc respicit Anglos.”

“ Hence Wye the English views, and thence the Welch.”

In this church is a chalice of great antiquity, being from its date made in 1176, and although finished in a very rough manner, it has some resemblance to those used in the present age. It is supposed that it was made by some of those Arabians living in the Norman territories, near the borders of Spain, who embraced the Christian religion, and was by them brought to Britany or Normandy, and from thence to England. At English Bicknor, a triangular bushy mount hangs like a noble rampart to the water at the next reach. The verdant rocks now spread their tufted heads in variegated order, and at the half way point, the abrupt cliffs, called Coldwell, opened an amphitheatre of romantic beauties, beyond the power of words or canvass to express; the creeping ever-greens upon the protuberances of each mouldering rock, and the profusion of other hanging foliage, present a variety of vivid tints inimitably soft and fine. No tapestry of art, not even of the rich Gobelins* can possibly excel this admirable production of the loom

* ‘ A house in Paris, in the suburb of St. Marceau, so called from Giles Gobelin, an excellent dyer, who found out the secret of dying scarlet, in the reign of Francis I. This is the place where they make the finest tapestry in Europe.’

of nature; we only wanted fun to paint the colours stronger. The massy heap beneath thrown from their rocks by the devastation of time, are very curious, and some of them little inferior to the famous Bowdler-stone in Borrowdale; one in particular, infinitely more deserves the similitude "of a ship lying on its keel," immersed too in the bosom of these lucid streams. We now came to the second ferry called Hudson's rope, at Whitechurch, which, to give an idea of the beauteous course of this river, is seven miles distant from the upper one, at Goodriche, by water, and only one by land. The parish church here is another picturesque object on the verge of the water, so near as sometimes to be surrounded by the flood; the vast hills beyond are remarkably bold, and form a sublime termination to this reach. The thinly scattered cots, as we approach the new Weir, are richly replete; no gripe of poverty, no perplexing cares seem to disturb these quiet haunts; a more primæval scene cannot well be conceived to exist. Passing through a lock we saw the busy Cyclops working on the opposite shore, and as the evening was far advanced and rather overcast, this scene became more awful and sublime.

The Moon scarce seated on her silver car,
 The veil of night hung heavy o'er the world,
 And o'er the solemn scene such stillness reign'd,
 As 'twere a pause of nature: on the banks
 No murmuring billow breaks, but all is hush'd;
 Save ever and anon the thund'ring stroke
 That beats the fiery mass. While upwards rise
 The smoaky volumes sparkling thro' the air.
 But hark! the full assembled owls begin
 To shriek their orgies midst the rocks and woods.
 Pensive I sit and hear the frightful din
 Responsive echoing thro' the fullen skies,
 Till, lull'd by music of the dashing car,
 My untun'd soul again finds sweet repose.*

P. 238. 'We now had an agreeable drive through the remainder of Lord Bathurst's grounds, whose beautiful walks, lawns, and extensive plantations do the highest credit to the taste and spirit of Allan Earl Bathurst, father to the present proprietor. Besides the several ornamental buildings on the delightful terrace, which commands distant and fine views, we are pleased with various objects of this kind, interspersed amidst the lawns and vistas of the deer park, particularly a noble lofty column, on the top of which is placed the statue of Queen Anne, as large as life: from hence we have a charming view of the house, with the tower of the church placed so directly in the centre behind, that at first we are induced to believe them one and the same elegant structure. We now passed by an handsome alcove, dedicated to the immortal Pope, where he often used to retire to indulge the creative sallies of his genius, when on a visit to his noble friend and patron. Opposite to this we were again amused with Oakley woods in miniature, a lawn from whose centre seven

* 'Parody on part of the first scene, act third, of the Grecian Daughter.'

more vistas are directed to various pleasing objects, particularly that stately column just mentioned. Here we took a grateful leave and crossed through the fields, about a mile, to the village of Stratton, where we entered the great Gloucester road. The clouds, which had been threat'ning long, now began to pour their copious stores upon the bleak downs of Cotswould; thus we travelled many miles amidst those unshelt'ring walls of stone, till we gladly arrived on that immense verge of Birdlip, whose summit, on a level with most of the Cotswould, so gloriously hangs near 1350 feet above the water of the Severn. Here the lovely and delicious vale of Gloucester again burst sweetly on our sight, and its fair city, to whose arms we were now eagerly returning, smiled even in this misty eclipse of clouds and rain.

Of the style in general, a judgment may be formed from the above extracts; it appears to us weak and affected, neither prose nor verse; but as we suppose the work will seldom be referred to, except for information, its poetical ornaments, and trite remarks, may be passed over, for usefulness does not depend on, nor can be destroyed by, trifles.

ART. X. *A Companion in a Tour round Lymington: comprehending a brief Account of that Place and its Environs, the New Forest, Isle of Wight, and Towns of Southampton, Christ Church, &c. &c.* By Richard Warner, jun. 12mo. p. 265. pr. 2s. 6d. sewed. Southampton, Baker. London, Faulder. 1789.

THE author informs us, in the advertisement prefixed to this volume, that it was not written for publication; but, in the usual style, that he could not resist the solicitations of a much honoured friend, and hopes, with all due humility, to protect it by this representation, 'from the frowns of fastidiousness and the fatal fangs of criticism.' It is time to discard such cant, particularly in the present instance, as it is scarcely possible, after perusing this studied work, to believe for a moment, that it was written 'to while away the tedious hours of sickness.' There is an appearance of puerile labour in the style, which borders on affectation, and, at first, the reader who has either judgment or taste, must receive an unfavourable impression; however, let him proceed, and he will meet with accurate descriptions of the places adverted to, enlivened by historical facts pertinently interspersed. If there had been less learning obtruded, and fewer sentimental effusions, the tour would have deserved warmer praise, on account of the well-connected information it contains; but we could not help thinking of the fable of the mountain in labour, when the petty disaster of a few acres, and the decay of humble villages, are traced with the same pomp of words which have been culled to record the downfall of noble cities or the destruction of mighty empires.

We,

We shall add two extracts; the title sufficiently points out the extent of the tour; and the summer visitors of Lymington, who are daily in quest of amusement, will find it a useful companion to excite curiosity, and direct their excursions round that pleasant place.

P. 10. 'Considered in a commercial light, Lymington has little to boast; its imports consist chiefly of coals brought from the northern countries, and its foreign exports are confined to *salt* alone; a brisk coasting trade is however carried on, and many vessels are employed in this domestic business.

'Its only manufacture likewise, (of any consequence) is *salt*, of which various kinds, (equally esteemed and excellent) are made at the works contiguous to the town. This manufacture appears to be of very considerable antiquity; duties were taken on the salt produced here, as early as the reign of *Edward the second*; and *Camden* (who wrote about two centuries since) particularly mentions that, which was then made on this coast; nay he cites a passage from *St. Ambrose*, and conceives the father there speaks of this sea salt, which (if so) proves it was in some manner produced in these parts, upwards of fourteen hundred years ago.

'The superiority of the *Lymington* salt, to that made in any other part throughout the kingdom, (for the purpose of preserving) had for a long series of years, render'd it the most considerable place both for the manufactory and sale of this article; but being of late greatly underfold, by the inhabitants of *Droitwich*, *Nantwich*, &c. (who are enabled by several local advantages, to dispose of it at a much cheaper rate than the Lymington manufacturer) the works have been sometime since rapidly on the decline, and are now verging very fast towards annihilation. Whether some parliamentary encouragement would not again invigorate, and restore them to their pristine consequence, is a question that admits of little doubt, and deserves serious consideration. The encouragement and protection of arts and manufactures, form one of the most important objects the legislature can bend its attention to, and when such may be afforded, without injustice to the individual, or disadvantage to the revenue, it is reasonable, as well as politic, in government to give it.

'Large quantities of the medicinal salts (the *Glauber* and *Epsom*) are still made here, a constant sale for which will never be wanting, as no other part of England produces them, equal in any degree to those manufactured at *Lymington*.

'Among the many conveniences *Lymington* enjoys, we must not omit to mention its *bathing houses*. They consist of two sets, one situated at the bottom of the town, and the other at the distance of half a mile from it. They are both well calculated to answer the purposes for which they were erected.'

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P. 179. 'Let me not forget to mention likewise, that from hence too may be discerned *Peverall Point*, the fatal promontory against which the *Hallswell* was lost, and her unfortunate crew dashed and swallowed up. The recollection of an event, teeming with circumstances so peculiarly distressful, must affect the bosom of indifference itself, and *sensibility* while she views the cruel spot, will spontaneously drop the friendly

friendly tribute of a tear, to the memory of the unhappy sufferers; who were thus, in an untimely manner, snatched from existence, and buried in the waves that wash their native shore.' T.

ART. XII. *Edict of the Grand Duke of Tuscany, for the Reform of Criminal Law in his Dominions*: Translated from the Italian, together with the Original. Royal 8vo. 122 pages. Warrington, Printed by W. Eyres. 1789. A few copies to be had gratis of Messrs. Cadell, Johnson, Dilly, and Taylor. [This Pamphlet not to be sold.]

THERE is, in all countries and ages, a gradual progress from ferocity to suavity of manners. And, as manners influence laws as much as they are influenced by them, it follows that the laws framed in advanced, are more humane than those enacted in early periods of society. The oldest nations to be found on earth, are the Chinese and Hindoos. The Chinese and the Hindoo laws are, accordingly, of all human institutions the mildest.

The Italians who, in respect of that progressive improvement which belongs to all nations, may be considered as the oldest people in Europe, are the mildest in their manners, take the lead as might be expected, in reducing laws fabricated in times of rudeness and barbarism to the standard of a happier æra. The king of Naples has given several examples of this kind. And the Grand Duke of Tuscany, in the edict before us, has established a system of criminal law, without having recourse, in any case, to capital punishments. This humane policy has been recommended in a very judicious manner, by the marquis of Beccaria and other Italian writers.

The editor of this pamphlet, which contains the Grand Duke of Tuscany's code of penal laws, or, according to the title here prefixed, *An Edict for the reform of Criminal Law in his dominions*, having been favoured with a copy of the original, has been prompted to make it public, from a general admiration of the *just* and *benevolent* principles by which it was dictated; and with this view he has procured a translation of it into the English language. The editor is very sensible that there are passages in this edict, which do not consist with that extensive liberty, which is the just pride and boast of Englishmen; and that there are likewise regulations found here, which are better adapted to the police of a *small* state, than to that of a *large* and *populous* country. He does not, therefore, give it as a complete system of penal laws; but at the same time, he is fully persuaded that there are many things in it, which are well deserving of notice and imitation; and that, whenever a revival of our own penal laws shall take place, many useful hints may be derived from this code for their improvement, which has appeared to him a sufficient inducement to disperse a number of copies in the present form.

We entirely agree with our judicious and liberal editor, (Mr. Howard) in the opinion that he entertains of this code of laws;
and

and think that he has, by publishing them, deserved well of all nations. The preamble to this code, will serve to convey a general idea of the spirit on which it is founded.

• Since our accession to the throne of Tuscany, we have considered the examination and reform of the criminal laws as one of our principal duties; and having soon discovered them to be too severe, in consequence of their having been founded on maxims established either at the unhappy crisis of the Roman empire, or during the troubles of anarchy; and particularly, that they were by no means adapted to the mild and gentle temper of our subjects; we set out by moderating the rigour of the said laws, by giving injunctions and orders to our tribunals, and by particular edicts abolishing *the pains of death*, together with the different tortures and punishments, which were immoderate, and disproportioned to the transgressions, and contraventions to fiscal laws: waiting till we were enabled by a serious examination, and by the trial we should make of these new regulations, entirely to reform the said legislature.

• With the utmost satisfaction to our paternal feelings, we have at length perceived, that the mitigation of punishments, joined to a most scrupulous attention to prevent crimes, and also a great despatch in the trials, together with a certainty and suddenness of punishment to real delinquents, has, instead of increasing the number of crimes, considerably diminished that of the smaller ones, and rendered those of an atrocious nature very rare: we have therefore come to a determination, not to defer any longer the reform of the said criminal laws; and having abolished in an absolute way the pain of death, deeming it not essential to the aim of society in punishing the guilty; having totally forbidden the use of the torture, and the confiscation of the criminals' goods, the latter as generally tending to the ruin of their innocent families, which were not accomplices in their offences; having excluded from the legislation a multitude of crimes, improperly called *lèse majesté**, invented in barbarous times by a refinement of cruelty; and having ordered punishments proportioned to the different kinds of transgressions, in the interim indispensable in the different cases; we have determined, in the fulness of our supreme authority, to order as follows.

Our princely legislator has arranged all crimes that are either commonly or but rarely practised, under different heads, with great precision, allotting to each a species and degree of chastisement, which we, in this country, might suppose to be, in some instances, inadequate to the end of punishment; but which, it seems, are sufficient to influence and overawe the mild and gentle tempers of Tuscan subjects.

But if the punishments of the Tuscan code are, on the whole, much milder than those inflicted by the law of England, or any other European state; there are crimes noticed, and justly punished in Tuscany, which are wholly over-looked in other governments: an example of which we have in the punishment of pimping.

* High treason confined to the person or interest of the prince.

‘Pimping, in persons of either sex, shall, for the first offence, be punished by public flogging upon an ass and banishment, and for the second, by public labour for men, and the house of correction for women; which punishment of public labour, and the house of correction respectively, shall always be inflicted, when the intention is to punish for so infamous a crime the father, mother, husband, tutor, those who are entrusted with the care of the female, man-servants, maid-servants, and other domestics in the service of the house of residence of the woman, who through their measures shall be prostituted; and the said punishment shall be further increased, if there be the concurrent circumstance of the deflowering of a virgin, and still more so if she have not attained the age of puberty, or if any violence have intervened: nor shall it avail any thing to the transgressors, so as to enable them to escape from the punishments prescribed above, to plead that they have neither received, nor agreed for any reward.’

The English version is precise, accurate, and faithful to the original. B. B.

ART. XII. *An Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation.* Printed in the Year 1780, and now first published. By Jeremy Bentham, of Lincoln's-inn, Esq. 4to. p. 360. Price 19s. in boards. Payne and Son. 1789.

THE nature and design of this work, as the author informs us in his preface, are more limited than the title page appears to indicate. The work was originally intended, it seems, for an introduction to a code of penal laws; and we may still observe, that the several disquisitions contained in it have all an immediate reference to that particular object.

With this view, the author examines, first of all, the great principle by which a legislator, and a judge, ought invariably to be directed and governed, in the framing and interpreting of penal laws. This is no other than *utility*.

Nature (says he) has placed mankind under the governance of two sovereign masters, *pain* and *pleasure*. It is for them alone to point out what we ought to do, as well as to determine what we shall do. On the one hand the standard of right and wrong, on the other the chain of causes and effects, are fastened to their throne. They govern us in all we do, in all we say, in all we think: every effort we can make to throw off our subjection, will serve but to demonstrate and confirm it. In words a man may pretend to adjure their empire: but in reality he will remain subject to it all the while. The *principle of utility* recognizes this subjection, and assumes it for the foundation of that system, the object of which is to rear the fabric of felicity by the hands of reason and of law. Systems which attempt to question it, deal in sounds instead of sense, in caprice instead of reason, in darkness instead of light.

Having pointed out the true foundation of government, he is led, in the next chapter, to take notice of certain false principles, which have usurped the place of *utility*, and been productive of erroneous determinations. One of these is what he
terms

terms the *ascetic principle*, which leads to reprobate pleasure as such; and to approve of actions, in as far as they contribute to diminish the happiness of mankind.

There are two classes of men, (he observes) of very different complexions, by whom the principle of asceticism appears to have been embraced; the one a set of moralists, the other a set of religionists. Different accordingly have been the motives which appear to have recommended it to the notice of these different parties. Hope, that is the prospect of pleasure, seems to have animated the former: hope, the aliment of philosophic pride: the hope of honour and reputation at the hands of men. Fear, that is the prospect of pain, the latter: fear, the offspring of superstitious fancy: the fear of future punishment at the hands of a splenetic and revengeful Deity. I say in this case, fear: for of the invisible future, fear is more powerful than hope. These circumstances characterize the two different parties among the partizans of the principle of asceticism; the parties and their motives different, the principle the same.

The religious party, however, appear to have carried it farther than the philosophical: they have acted more consistently and less wisely. The philosophical party have scarcely gone farther than to reprobate pleasure: the religious party have frequently gone so far as to make it a matter of merit and of duty to court pain. The philosophical party have hardly gone farther than the making pain a matter of indifference. It is no evil, they have said: they have not said, it is a good. They have not so much as reprobated all pleasure in the lump. They have discarded only what they have called the gross; that is, such as are organical, or of which the origin is easily traced up to such as are organical: they have even cherished and magnified the refined. Yet this, however, not under the name of pleasure: to cleanse itself from the sordes of its impure original, it was necessary it should change its name: the honourable, the glorious, the reputable, the becoming, the *honestum*, the *decorum*, it was to be called: in short, any thing but pleasure.

Another principle, adverse to that of utility, is what our author calls, the principle of *sympathy and antipathy*. By sympathy and antipathy, though the phrase is a little uncouth, he means the notions of *propriety* or *impropriety* annexed to particular actions, the disgust, indignation, and horror frequently excited by particular vices, which have led mankind to punish them, independent of their pernicious tendency, or to inflict upon them a higher punishment than what is dictated by the mere consideration of utility.

Our author ridicules the different systems of right and wrong introduced by different philosophers, and considers them as merely contrivances to avoid the obligation of appealing to any external standard, and to prevail upon the reader to accept of the author's sentiment or opinion, as a reason for itself. One man professes to be governed by the *moral sense*, another by *common sense*. The former says, *sic volo, sic jubeo*. The latter, *volitis jubeatis*. Others make use of different phrases, but their intention is the same.

It seems not, however, to be denied, that a *moral sentiment* may exist independent of *utility*; but only, that it can ever justify a person in addressing himself to the community, for establishing a set of common regulations.

‘The principle of sympathy and antipathy, (according to our author) is most apt to err on the side of severity. It is for applying punishment in many cases which deserve none: in many cases which deserve some, it is for applying more than they deserve. There is no incident imaginable, be it ever so trivial, and so remote from mischief, from which this principle may not extract a ground of punishment. Any difference in taste: any difference in opinion: upon one subject as well as upon another. No disagreement so trifling which perseverance and altercation will not render serious. Each becomes in the other’s eyes an enemy, and, if laws permit, a criminal. This is one of the circumstances by which the human race is distinguished (not much indeed to its advantage) from the brute creation.’

Having considered the general foundation of punishment, Mr. Bentham proceeds to examine the circumstances which ought to direct its application to particular cases. These circumstances he endeavours to point out with great minuteness, by which he is led into a variety of metaphysical distinctions. Separate chapters are allotted to the consideration of the different sources of pleasure and pain,—of the *value* of pleasures and pains,—of their various kinds,—of the circumstances affecting the *sensibility* of mankind in this respect. These particulars are followed by an examination of the nature of human actions, as the object of punishment,—of the *intentionality* of the agent—of his *consciousness* or *advisedness*, with respect to the consequences of an action—of his *motives*—of his *dispositions*, which render him liable to be influenced by different motives—of the *consequences*, or *tendency* of a mischievous act.

After these discussions, the attention of the reader is directed to a view of those particular actions, upon which punishment ought to be inflicted. As all punishment is of itself an *evil*, it ought only to be admitted, so far as it promises to exclude some greater evil. It ought not therefore, to be admitted, 1. When it is *groundless*, that is, where there is no mischievous act. 2. Where it must be *inefficacious*. 3. Where it is *unprofitable*, being attended with greater evil than the mischief it would prevent. 4. Where it is *needless*; as, without it, the mischief may be prevented. The cases which illustrate these distinctions are the subject of a separate and minute enquiry.

The *proportion* between punishments and offences falls next under examination, and is treated at considerable length. Our author has here an opportunity of applying the principles formerly laid down, by distinguishing the respective mischief arising from particular offences, and the tendency of different punishments to counterbalance and prevent that mischief. In general,

ral, he seems to determine, that every punishment ought to be just so great as is necessary for preventing any offence.

Though we do not mean to controvert his general principle, that utility ought to regulate the degree of all punishments, we shall take the liberty of suggesting a circumstance, which he appears to have overlooked, and which, at least with the bulk of mankind, has great influence in fixing the *demerit* of every offence. Every crime excites an immediate *sense of injury*, and a degree of *resentment*, in the person who suffers by it; and is at the same time productive of a *sympathetic resentment*, in the breast of every impartial spectator. By this strong and immediate feeling, the bulk of mankind are roused and incited to punish crimes; and they are apt to pay little regard to the general utility of punishment. It is, indeed, a wise disposition of things, that men should be provided with an immediate sentiment of this nature, since they are, for the most part, so little governed by general considerations of political expediency. Now it seems evident, that every punishment which deviates very much from that which is dictated by the natural resentment of mankind, must be contrary to utility; because it never can be punctually and regularly inflicted. The whole world, in such a case, the party principally concerned, the neighbours, and spectators of the fact, even judges and lawyers, however callous to natural feelings they have become, by the habitual execution of the law, are apt to connive at the escape of the offender. When, on the other hand, punishments coincide with the sympathetic resentment of an impartial spectator, every person, who is a witness of the crime, joins with alacrity in bringing the offender to justice; and the law may be said, in some measure, to execute itself.

Here, then, is a material circumstance in regulating the proportion of punishments, which appears, at first sight, to deviate from the principle of utility, but which is, at bottom, inseparably connected with it; for the regular and impartial execution of penal laws is, of all things, most essential to their usefulness in society.

Having prepared his readers by the observations, of which some account has been given, Mr. Bentham comes to what appears the great object in this publication, a *division and arrangement of offences*.

The whole of those acts which are the subject of penal law, he divides into five great classes. The first, composed of those offences which tend immediately to the hurt of individuals. The second, of those which are detrimental to particular societies within the great community; and which he denominates *semi-public* offences. The third, of such offences as tend immediately to hurt the criminal himself. The fourth, composed of such acts as are immediately hurtful to the state, which

are *public offences*. And the last, consisting of such offences as are committed by *falsehood*, and against *trust*. Each of these classes is subdivided into a great multiplicity of branches.

With regard to this division, we shall only remark, that we see no reason for a separate arrangement of those offences which are placed in the *fifth class*, since there can be no question, that *falsehood* and *breach of trust*, may be detrimental either to individuals, to particular societies, or to the state; and consequently are comprehended under three of the other classes.

Such are the very general outlines of a work, which discovers evident marks of great industry, and a philosophical spirit. As the nature of the undertaking led the author to distinguish many objects that are similar, perhaps the love of discrimination has been sometimes carried too far, and been productive of divisions and subdivisions of little use to a legislator. Even in the view of a speculative metaphysician, we think that some of these divisions might be more simplified, and their number greatly reduced. In point of composition, we are afraid the observations are delivered in a manner too abstracted to render the subject popular; and they are often involved in a peculiar phraseology, with which those who read merely for amusement, may possibly be disgusted.

ART. XIII. *Lectures on political Principles; the Subject of Eighteen Books in Montesquieu's Spirit of Laws: read to Students under the Author's Direction.* By the Rev. David Williams. 8vo. 278 p. Pr. 5s. 3d. in boards. Bell. 1789.

IN a short preface to this work, the author informs us, that having for some time been employed in directing the education of persons approaching to maturity, and perceiving the defects in the common methods of teaching, he formed the students into parties for and against the most celebrated writers on political œconomy, and converted to his purpose, a prevalent passion in Englishmen, which had often embarrassed him.

The following lectures have arisen, it seems, from this institution. Few authors appear better calculated than Montesquieu for the subject of remark and of criticism; as while we admire the depth of his original and inventive genius, and are captivated by his power of illustration and his lively manner of writing, we cannot fail to discover, that, in the course of his observations, he has fallen into many palpable mistakes, and that his composition is now and then disfigured by an appearance of flippancy and affectation. To detect and expose these mistakes our author has been abundantly attentive; though we are far from thinking he has always been successful. The errors or inaccuracies which he has pointed out relate frequently to things of small moment; in some cases, he seems

to have misapprehended the meaning of those passages which he examines; and in many, we are disposed to think that Montesquieu is the greater politician. The strictures upon that part of the spirit of laws which respects the British constitution have, in our opinion, the best foundation; though even here, the laudable zeal of our author has led him into expressions which appear to be rather intemperate. As, upon the whole, his observations are of a miscellaneous nature, we are unable to collect the result of them in any systematic view, but shall lay before the reader a few passages of the work, which may give some idea of the author's manner of thinking and writing.

Montesquieu has observed, "that in England, the jury determine whether the fact, brought under their cognizance, be proved or not; if it be proved, the judge pronounces the punishment inflicted by the law for such a particular fact, and for this, he needs only open his eyes."

Upon which, our author makes the following spirited remark:

"The contentions of parties—in a period of our history too well known to require description; too dishonorable and unfortunate to be overlooked—have thrown obscurities over the subject. A judge who may be distinguished, if remembered by posterity, for successful and brilliant sophistry, not for solid and useful wisdom—has divided the original idea of fact; which implied the intention and injury, as well as the mechanical action.

"Thus a man, pressed in a croud, putting his hand in the pocket of another when he intended to take an handkerchief out of his own—if he should discover his mistake and return the handkerchief—is not guilty of the felonious fact, according to the customary and legal construction of the word: and the jury could not find *the fact*. The lawyer to whom I allude, has tried to establish a different mode of construction—by which such a man must be found guilty of the fact; without regard to the felony: the decision of which he maintained to be in the breast of the judge.

"His authority has not given credit to the innovation: and it is hoped, every idea of it will sink into the grave with him."

In another place, we find our author censuring an opinion which political writers have very generally adopted.

"The opinion of Montesquieu, (says he) which seems to me most pernicious, is, that political liberty can, from the nature of things, occupy only small spots; and when nations extend their borders; become populous and opulent; they necessarily lose their liberty. This is owing to the common error of the author, in not distinguishing scientific truth from historic fact. If he had said, the talents necessary to form political constitutions are so uncommon; and the difficulties attending the exercise of them so great—that they seldom advance beyond experiments and models, in contracted spaces: when those spaces are enlarged, and particularly by sudden and violent accidents, the greatest men are apt to shrink from the task of extending their plans—and desperate adventurers seize the direction of tumultuous torrents, under the denominations of generals or monarchs.

‘ That would have been stating truths; and alledging reasons: but it would not have proved the author’s opinion—that the evil is the form of government; and that nothing can redress it. If a writer were to affirm the science of fortification can employ itself only on small spots, and not for the security of extensive districts, he would be deemed insane—and the author has escaped censure for affirming similar absurdities in political œconomy, from the general ignorance of political science.’

Upon the question, how far members of the house of commons should be bound to observe the instructions of their constituents, our author delivers his opinion as follows:

‘ Instructions of a general or particular nature, are not necessary to representation; which depends on the methods observed in elections. If the constituents appoint a deputy, who understands their interests; who must find his own, in rendering them consistent with the general good—they constitute a representative who will deliberate or act as they would do, if present in the public senate, viewing local interests in their relation to those of the community. Instructions may be useful; or they may be embarrassing. If the representative should act injudiciously, for he could hardly act corruptly; they should instruct, remonstrate, or recall him. But their intercourse should not affect public determinations, which must be carried by a majority of the assembly.

‘ If we suppose a deputy improperly chosen—the privilege of instruction would be of little use. The deputy not having an interest in common with his constituents, not being their actual representative; he would attend to instructions as persons of perverse inclinations or bad habits, attend to lessons or sermons.

‘ I do not mean to countenance the ridiculous claim of virtual representation. A member of parliament, is either the actual representative of certain numbers of people, to whom it is inconvenient to attend; or he is their master; or he is something not definable by common reason. As he brings into the senate his knowledge and attachment to local interests, he finds all the members of the assembly, in similar circumstances; and that its business is to combine or harmonize them for the general advantage.

‘ It is possible, things may appear to him in a light of which he had no conception, on undertaking the charge; that a difference in opinion may arise between him and his constituents. In that case, he is to act from his own judgment; and submit to the consequence. But as his judgment may be wrong, and that of the constituents right; as it is possible he may have been influenced, or corrupted, the constituents should have a speedy or easy mode of discharging him. Thus, the nation might have the advantage of the talents of individuals; and little inconvenience from their vices or faults.’

We shall quote only one passage more, in which the author seems to discover his predilection for a republican form of Government.

‘ When Montesquieu (says he) affirms the executive power ought to be in a monarch, he must mean, it is so in the English Constitution. It is not true, “that requiring expedition, its duties are better discharged by one than by many.”—In public, as in private business, men may
“ make

"make more haste than good speed." That has been perceived, where executive powers have been intrusted in single hands.

Kings are therefore provided with cabinets, or confidential councils, by whose advice or concurrence, all movements of executive powers are made. This is actually committing them into the hands of numbers. A species of superstitious sanctity is thrown over the idol of the assembly. He is supposed to be born with talents and virtues suited to his divine nature; he is fixed in the obvious points of all gaudy or ostentatious exhibitions; he is apparently to choose his servants, for purposes he cannot comprehend; and they take from him the trouble or blame of real business: he is to indulge his caprices, on the responsibility of others; and those caprices are to determine the most important political questions.

'There are young gentlemen in this room, who may furnish the Tartars with as many reasons for adoring the Grand Lama, as can be alledged in a free nation, for the support of such royalty.' ☉.

ART. XV. *An Essay to direct and extend the Inquiries of Patriotic Travellers; with further Observations on the Means of preserving the Life, Health, and Property of the Unexperienced, in their Journeys by Land and Sea. Also a Series of Questions, interesting to Society and Humanity, necessary to be proposed for Solution to Men of all Ranks and Employments, and of all Nations and Governments; comprising the most serious Points relative to the Objects of all Travels; to which is annexed a List of English and Foreign Works, intended for the Instruction and Benefit of Travellers; and a Catalogue of the most interesting European Travels, which have been published in different Languages, from the earliest Times down to September 8, 1787.* By Count Leopold Berchtold, Knight of the Military Order of St. Stephen of Tuscany, &c. &c. Small 8vo. 2 Vols. 810 p. Pr. 13s. in boards. Robinsons. 1789.

THE author's title fully expressing the intention of this publication, we shall endeavour to give our readers some idea of the contents, by a brief analysis. In the preface the count observes, that 'travellers must not expect to gain information but by diligent search: and, in order to profit thereby, it should be systematical.

The essay is divided into twelve sections. *Section First*, and one of the most important, treats of the *most necessary qualifications for a young person intending to travel*. Under this designation he shows the necessity of their being previously acquainted with *National Law—Natural History—Mineralogy, Metallurgy and Chemistry*; from their general tendency to the advantages of manufactures, and consequently commerce—*Mathematics*; those branches particularly which are useful in common life—*Mechanics*, so as to be able to understand the construction and application of machines—*Hydrostatics and Hydraulics*, to comprehend water machines which facilitate labour—

labour—*Perspective*—*Geography*—*Navigation and Ship-building*—*Agriculture*—*Languages*: here he recommends Sir William Jones's method—*Arithmetic* to enable them to form a quick calculation in matters of comparison, produce, proportion, &c.—*Drawing*—*A legible and quick hand*—*Swimming*—*Superficial knowledge of Medicine*—*Music*, an article apparently the least necessary—*Knowledge of Mankind*—*Knowledge of the state of our own country*—and *Previous knowledge of the country which the traveller intends to visit*.

Section II. embraces 'THE OBJECTS MOST WORTHY OF A TRAVELLER'S DISCOVERY AND INVESTIGATION IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES.' These are the *preservation of human life*, including laws for the prevention of crimes, regulations for preventing the plague, for providing against scarcity of corn, &c. and charitable institutions for the behalf of infants. He mentions, as a fact, though we know not on what grounds such a calculation could have been made, that 'in Great Britain, since the year 1686, upward of *forty-two thousand* children have been overlaid.'—*Means of providing for the most neglected class of inhabitants*—*Employment of the poor*—*Improvements in agriculture*—*Discoveries of machines*—*Discoveries made by, and offered to, patriotic societies*—*Manufacture and commerce*—*Taxes*—*Finance*—*Laws and administration of justice*—and—*Education*. On all these our author offers pertinent and well-founded remarks.

Section III. treats ON INFORMATION, AND THE MEANS OF OBTAINING IT. Travellers are not to trust to the information of others, but survey things themselves: to habituate themselves to observation; conceal the motives of their journey—select the best informed company—visit and confer with great men, and able artists, as well as eccentric geniuses and extraordinary characters; conceal their rank when among inferior persons—be present at civil and criminal trials—carefully inspect the manufactures—enquire into population, its causes and defects—inspect libraries, and search into the antiquities of the country, &c. &c.

Section IV. ON COMMITTING OBSERVATIONS ON PAPER.—To be done on the spot if possible; daily minutes to be copied—a secret hand would be useful, &c. &c.

Section V. ON THE MEANS OF PROVIDING FOR THE SAFETY OF THE TRAVELLER'S PERSON AND PROPERTY. The author is very particular on this subject, and his remarks will be found useful, although many of them seem such as would naturally occur.

Section VI. ON THE MEANS OF PRESERVING A TRAVELLER'S HEALTH, PARTICULARLY IN HOT COUNTRIES. This is one of the best chapters in the book; we could wish to copy the whole of it; but can only refer to it.

Section

Section VII. VIII. IX. X. and XI; contain many important remarks, evidently the result of experience, on the means of being supplied with money—on letters of recommendation—on inns—on luggage, and on sea voyages.

Section XII. Treats of a few subjects of lesser importance, which could not be classed so properly with the former, as the choice of a companion, behaviour among foreigners, &c. To these sections the author has added the directions of the Humane Society of London, for the recovery of the apparently drowned.

The rest of the volume, consisting of upwards of 400 pages, is employed in a 'series of questions interesting to society and humanity, necessary to be proposed for solution to men of all ranks and employments, and of all nations and governments; comprising the most serious points relative to the objects of all travels.'

Of these questions our author has laid down many thousands; but yet, by a happy arrangement of them under certain heads, has prevented all manner of confusion, and, as far as we have observed, of unnecessary repetition. They appear, on a general inspection, to comprehend every minute circumstance on which the attention of a traveller can possibly be fixed. The questions are divided into thirty-seven sections, of which the following are the general heads—Geographical state of the country—Population—State of the peasantry—Agriculture—Cattle in general—Black cattle—Sheep—woods—Mines—Manufactures—Questions applicable to every manufactory—Inland and foreign trade—Colonies—Inland navigation—Navigation upon the sea—Questions applicable to every sea-port—Fishery in general—Herring fishery—Whale fishery—Coral fishery—Construction of merchantmen—Laws and administration of civil justice—Laws and administration of criminal justice—Charitable establishments—Education—Origin, manners and customs, of the nation—Women—Religion and clergy—Nobility—Government—Taxes and imposts—Finances—Land forces—Navy—Construction of men of war—Sovereign.

To these the count has added a part of Dean Tucker's Instructions for Travellers, published in the year 1754, which respects the 'comparative poverty or riches of a city, town, or country, in passing through it.' Useful tables are also interspersed in the work, calculated to facilitate the labours of the philosophical and patriotic traveller.

As a specimen of this part of the work we select section XXIII.

LAWS AND ADMINISTRATION OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE.

Criminal Laws. 1. Are the laws written in the vulgar language of the country? and are they adapted to the comprehension of the public in general? 2. Does the government take due care to extend sufficiently the knowledge of the laws amongst the common people, that every

every body may be informed what effect each action may have on his person and liberty?

* *Magistrate.* 1. Does the authority of a judge extend itself further than to decide the question, whether the action be against the written laws, or not? 2. Is the magistrate empowered to inflict punishments that are not ordered by the laws? 3. Is it in his power to encrease the punishments prescribed by the laws?

On Criminal Prosecution and Capture. 1. What rights and privileges have the natives of this country with regard to imprisonment for criminal matters? 2. How far must evidence be probable in order to seize and imprison a commoner? 3. How is it with regard to a nobleman? 4. Can a powerful man imprison a mean person without alledging some legal cause, and without bringing that cause to a judicial hearing?

* *Trial.* 1. What formalities must be observed at the trial of a commoner? 2. What formalities with regard to a nobleman? 3. What is to be observed at the examen? 4. Are criminals tried publicly, or privately? 5. Must the accuser or witness appear face to face in open court? or how is it?

* *Witnesses.* 1. What are the proper requisites for being a witness? 2. Are women? condemned criminals? and persons noted for infamy, admitted to give evidence against a person? 3. What conditions of men are absolutely incapable of being witnesses? 4. How many witnesses are required to constitute a proof? 5. Are false witnesses common? 6. How are they punished if discovered?

* *Oath.* 1. Is it usual to admit accused persons to an oath? In what cases? 2. What kind of crimes admit justification by an oath?

* *Torture.* 1. When has putting criminals to the torture been abolished? or are there still some species of torture in use? what are they? 2. How are they performed? 3. In what cases is use made of them? 4. How long does each torture last? 5. What evidence is required in order to apply the torture? 6. Is this cruel practice often employed? 7. What kind of persons are exempted from the torture?

* *Excuse.* 1. What means are afforded to a criminal to justify himself, if he can? 2. How much time do the laws allow to an accused person to defend himself?

* *Appealing.* 1. Is appeal from an inferior judge to a superior usual in this country? and in what cases? 2. What is to be observed in the removal of the cause?

* *Sentence.* 1. What is requisite to sentence a criminal to die? 2. Must the sentence of death be signed by the sovereign? 3. Is the sovereign empowered to take away a man's life without a previous trial? 4. Is it usual to publish the sentences as well as the proofs of the crime, in order to restrain the force of the powerful, and the malevolence of the magistrate by the public opinion?

* *Execution.* 1. What is to be observed with regard to executions? 2. Are all the criminals publicly executed? or, in what cases are they put to death privately? 3. What power can save the life of a criminal sentenced to die?

* *Secret Accusing.* 1. Are secret accusations permitted by the law? in what cases? 2. How is the accused person then tried? 3. What proof is required?

* *Crimes and Punishments.* 1. Are the criminal laws reputed to be mild, or severe? and what effects does their mildness or severity produce?

duce? 2. What sort of crimes are the most common in this country? and what can be the reason of their frequency? What remedies does the government make use of to discover the retreat of the criminal? 4. Does the government promise a price for bringing the head of a notorious criminal, who is not easily to be taken? 5. Does government promise impunity to those criminals who betray their accomplices? 6. Does the punishment follow quickly on the crime? or is the administration of justice very slow? 7. Is every body punished without regard to his rank? or is it easy to escape the rigour of the laws by bribing the judges? 8. Is not a judge convicted of bribery, more severely punished than a common thief? 9. Are not accomplices of a crime punished with less rigour than the person who executed the crime? 10. Are the punishments exactly proportioned to the actual degree of civilization of the nation? and wherein do they consist?

Asylums. 1. Are there places independent of the laws where criminals might screen themselves against the pursuit of justice? and what are they? 2. What crimes enjoy the benefit of asylums? 3. Do foreign criminals find an asylum in this country?

Banishment. 1. Is it usual to banish criminals? and for what sort of crimes? 2. To what places are they sent? 3. For how many years? 4. What is the employment of the banished? 5. Is this punishment very much feared? 6. To how many can the number of exiled criminals annually amount?

Prisons. 1. Are the prisons clean? clear? dry? airy? wholesome? supplied duly with water? and only calculated for the custody of the prisoner, without imbittering their confinement with the usual horrors of prisons? 2. What care is taken to preserve the salubrity of the prisons, and the health of the prisoners? 3. Are men, and women? young beginners, and old offenders? felons and debtors, confined separately? and what difference is made in keeping them? 4. How are the prisoners fed? 5. How are they clothed? 6. How are their beds? 7. How are they obliged to employ their time usefully? 8. What care is taken of the prisoners when they are sick? 9. What distempers are peculiar to the prisoners? how are they prevented? how cured? 10. What means are made use of to effectuate a favourable change in the morals of the vicious? 11. What judicious and humane regulations are there with regard to prisons, which deserve to be adopted by other nations? 12. In what place are the state prisoners confined? and what is remarkable concerning their custody? N. B. For a general solution of these questions, we cannot better refer than to the philanthropic Mr. Howard, who being universally admired in Great Britain, and almost adored on the Continent, can receive no additional honour by encomium.

Wife Regulations. 1. What wise and equitable laws worthy imitation can this country boast of with regard to the administration of criminal justice? 2. What errors and imperfections can the criminal laws, and the administration of justice be reproached with? 3. By what means does government prevent all sorts of crimes, as far as the frailties of human nature will admit of it? 4. Has it not been also observed in this country, that criminals are mostly bachelors? and would not crimes be greatly lessened by encouraging people to marry? 5. What pains does government take to make a good citizen of a criminal? and what effect has this Christian and patriotic practice?

Volume

Volume second contains, 1. A list of divers works intended for the instruction of travellers. 2. A catalogue of the most interesting European travels, with indexes by which the books wanted may be easily found. In this catalogue, it cannot be surprizing if there should be defects, if some books should be omitted which are important, and some mentioned of which we presume the author knew the name only. It is, however, a very large collection; and to render it more complete as well as more useful, we would recommend to our author to attempt something in the manner of a *catalogue raisonné*. We have our doubts whether *Sterne's Sentimental Journey* has a legitimate place in this catalogue—but are certain that it is disgraced by the mention of such works as “*The Modern Universal British Traveller, 1779.*”—“*A Descriptive Journey through Germany and France, &c. by a young English Peer, 1786,*” &c.

Upon the whole, we are of opinion, Count Berchtold has made a valuable addition to literature. The design of the work, though obviously useful, is new, and in the execution, our author has left us much to commend, and comparatively little to find fault with. C. C.

ART. xv. *Hortus Kewensis; or, a Catalogue of the Plants cultivated in the Royal Botanic Garden at Kew.* By William Aiton, Gardener to His Majesty. Three Volumes Octavo. 1503 pages. Price 1l. 1s. in boards. Nicol. 1789.

THE long continued celebrity which the botanic garden at Kew has enjoyed, both formerly under the auspices of the late Princess Dowager of Wales, and the Earl of Bute; and for many years past under the protection, and at the expence of his present Majesty, and under the care of Mr. Aiton, whose abilities in the cultivation of plants are well known; make the present publication highly interesting both to foreign and domestic botanists, although it be in general little more than a catalogue, giving the Linnean name and character, the English name, and place of native growth, of the plants cultivated in the Kew garden. We are however informed by marks, whether each plant be an herb, shrub, or tree; annual or perennial: the time of flowering is also set down; and we are told whether it be hardy enough to subsist in the open air; or if it require the protection of a greenhouse, or of a stove. But the most curious intelligence which we derive from this catalogue, is the time when, and the persons by whom the plants were first introduced to notice, or cultivated among us. Although this information be not complete, yet much pains has evidently been taken on the subject: not only many books have been consulted, from Turner's herbal, in 1551, to the eighth edition

edition of Miller's dictionary in 1768, but the British Museum has also been ransacked for manuscript information. This article, conveying historical facts, will render the Kew catalogue interesting, even to such as are not mere botanists; and is a tribute of gratitude to the memory of those who have introduced useful or ornamental plants among us, and thus have contributed to our comforts or pleasures.

Although, not to swell the work with unnecessary synonyms, the author has thought proper in general to refer only to the species and systema of Linné, with the two Mantissas; yet he has occasionally referred to Jacquin, L'Heritier, the *Flora Rossica*, Curtis, and many others; as appears from the list of books quoted, taking up eighteen pages. And although, for the same reason, descriptions are given sparingly; yet very excellent ones appear scattered throughout the work, evidently showing that Mr. Aiton has had classical assistance, probably from the same quarter which furnished the plates with so much munificence. The plates are thirteen in number, drawn by Sowerby, J. F. Miller, Nodder, Ehret, and Bauer, and engraved mostly by M'Kenzie. The plants which these represent being rare, and few of them having been figured before, we have given a list of them; especially as none is given in the book itself.

*VOL. I.—1. *Calceolaria Fothergillii*, page 30.—2. *Strelitzia Reginae*, p. 285.—3. *Mossionia latifolia*, p. 405.—4. *Mossionia angustifolia*, p. 405.—5. *Leucoium strumosum*, p. 407.—6. *Dracæna borealis*, p. 454.

VOL. II.—7. *Vaccinium macrocarpon*, p. 13.—8. *Kalmia glauca*, p. 64.—9. *Potentilla tridentata*, p. 216.—10. *Calycanthus præcox*, p. 220.

VOL. III.—11. *Tussilago palmata*, p. 188.—12. *Limodorum Tankervilleæ*, p. 302.—13. *Smithia sensitiva*, p. 496.

The number of plants contained in this catalogue, and therefore as we may presume, cultivated in the royal garden at Kew, is 5,400. Of these a very considerable portion is not to be found in the works of Linné; and many of them are entirely new; the king having been at considerable expence in employing able persons to search for plants, at the Cape of Good Hope, and other places.

At the end of the third volume are *Addenda* of species, &c. omitted; characters of sixteen new genera, among which we observe *Strelitzia*, named in honour of the queen of Great Britain; *Smithia*, from Dr. J. E. Smith, the possessor of the Linnean herbarium and library; *Curtisia*, from Mr. Curtis, author of *Flora Londinensis*, &c. and *Heritiera*, from M. L'Heritier, an eminent French botanist, author of *Stirpes novæ*, *Sertum Anglicum*, and other splendid works.

Mr.

Mr. Aiton has inscribed his book to the king his master, in a short modest dedication, fraught with expressions of gratitude, but void of any fulsome flattery.

This work is in every respect handsomely and correctly executed; and will be interesting to many, as containing in one view, the far greater part of the plants now cultivated in Great Britain. We have not given an extract from it, because nothing that we could select would give any idea of the work itself.

M. T.

ART. XVI. *Medical Enquiries and Observations: To which is added, an Appendix, containing Observations on the Duties of a Physician, and the Methods of improving Medicine.* By Benjamin Rush, M. D. Professor of Chemistry in the University of Pennsylvania. The second Edition. 8vo. 261 p. Price 4s. sewed. Philadelphia, printed. London reprinted for C. Dilly. 1789.

THIS volume consists of various essays written, and we believe published by Dr. Rush at different times. Including the Appendix, there are nineteen of them, which we shall notice in the order of their occurrence.

1. *An Enquiry into the natural History of Medicine among the Indians of North America. And a comparative View of their Diseases and Remedies with those of civilized Nations.* Read before the American Philosophical Society, held at Philadelphia, on the 4th of February, 1774.

The tribes of Indians, who are the subjects of this enquiry, are limited 'to those who inhabit that part of North America which extends from the 30th to the 60th degree of latitude,' excluding the Esquimaux, who inhabit the shores of Hudson's Bay, there will be found 'a general resemblance in the colour, manners, and state of Society, among all the tribes of Indians who inhabit the extensive tract of country above mentioned.' Our author very properly begins with an enquiry into those customs among them, which are known to influence diseases, namely, those which relate to the birth and treatment of their children; to their diet; those customs which are peculiar to the sexes, and those which are common to them both. The treatment of children among the Indians, our author thinks, tends to secure a strength of constitution; and principally from three circumstances, their first food being their mother's milk, their being hardened against the action of heat and cold, by being daily plunged into cold water, and by their sucking generally till they are two years old. The diet of the Indians is partly animal and partly vegetable; in summer they live more upon fish than upon the flesh of land animals. The circumstances

circumstances and customs peculiar to women are, their being engaged in such domestic labour as renders them firm and somewhat masculine; their late menstruation, which seldom takes place 'till they are eighteen or twenty years of age; their not marrying early; their having easy deliveries, and there being scarcely a period between the eruption and the ceasing of the menses, when they are not pregnant, or giving suck. Among the employments peculiar to the men are principally those of hunting and war; and their amusements are those of dancing and swimming; they seldom marry till they are thirty; and they accustom themselves very early to bear severe pain. The customs common to both sexes are cold bathing and painting, that is rubbing the whole surface of their bodies with bear's grease and a coloured clay. On these several circumstances, as tending to produce or prevent disease, the author enlarges. With regard to their diseases 'we need only recollect, he says, the custom of sleeping in the open air in a variable climate; the alternate action of heat and cold upon their bodies, to which the warmth of their cabins exposes them—their long marches—their excessive exercise—their intemperance in eating, to which their long fasting, and their public feasts, naturally prompt them; and lastly, the vicinity of their habitations to the banks of rivers; in order to discover the empire of diseases among them in every stage of their lives.' Fevers constitute their principal diseases; these are of different kinds, and the dysentery, which is an Indian disease, our author says, comes under the class of fevers. They are subject to animal and vegetable poisons. The small-pox and venereal disease are with them adventitious diseases, and evidently, Dr. Rush thinks, communicated to the Indians of North America by the Europeans. He could never learn that they were subject to the scurvy, leprosy, &c. He has heard of two or three cases of the gout, 'but it was only among those who had learned the use of rum from the white people.' He never found a single instance of madness, melancholy, or fatuity among them; nor did he ever hear any account of diseases from worms. Dentition is not a disorder among the children, and the Indians appear moreover strangers to pain and diseases of the teeth. Their employments subjecting them to accidents, they are necessarily exposed to wounds, fractures and dislocations. These are all interesting facts, and if considered in no other light, afford important information respecting the natural history of man. Our author next proceeds to consider their remedies; in fevers they are principally as follow, abstinence from stimulating aliment, drinking cold water, producing sweat by exposure to warm vapor, and then plunging into a river. They likewise make use of purges, vomits, and astringent medicines; they draw blood with a sharp stone; they produce

the effects of a caustic by burning a piece of rotten wood on the part affected, the ashes of which form an eschar, and they restrain hæmorrhages in wounds by immersion in cold water. To this history of the diseases and remedies of the Indians he adds an enquiry into the diseases and remedies of civilized nations, with a view to their comparison. In this he is led, among various observations, to consider the imperfections of the medical art, and even the evils which society has suffered from it; and he concludes with a patriotic wish, that his countrymen may guard against the introduction of disease, by checking a disposition to luxury and effeminacy, by educating their children agreeably to nature, by preserving the common people from the effects of drinking spirits, and their superiors from the no less danger of the bottle; by being cautious what manufactures are introduced, lest some of them should be injurious to health; and above all, by encouraging agriculture, 'as the true basis of national health, riches, and populousness.'

2. *An Account of the Climate of Pennsylvania; and its Influence upon the Human Body.*

This is intended as an introduction to the observations on epidemic diseases, which compose a part of this volume. It begins with a short geographical account of Pennsylvania, describing its latitude; its extent; its being intersected and diversified by numerous rivers and mountains, the varieties of its soil, &c. and the peculiar situation of Philadelphia. The circumstance most likely to influence health seems to be its variable atmosphere. In summer excessive heat is often experienced, the thermometer being sometimes so high as 95° ; and in winter extreme cold, the thermometer being frequently below 0. The transitions from heat to cold are, also, often in both seasons, very sudden; 'after a day in which the mercury has stood at 86° and even 90° , it sometimes falls in the course of a single night to 65° , and even to 60° .' And in winter it has been known to fall, in twenty-four hours*, from 37° to $4\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$. In describing the suddenness with which the Delaware was once frozen over, he says, 'an unusual vapour, like a fog, was seen to rise from the water, in its passage from a fluid to a solid state.' We wonder the doctor should not be able to account for this; we conceive it was not owing to the water being in its passage from a fluid to a solid state; it was merely produced by the water being much warmer than the incumbent air; some of its particles still rose from its surface, by evaporation, and the air was too cold to hold them in solution,

* In Virginia it has been known to descend from 92° to 47° in thirteen hours.—Jefferson's notes on Virginia.

by which means the vapor became visible: this takes place always when water is much warmer than the surrounding air; it may always be seen in a severe frost, when water is pumped out of a well, and we have, in this climate, often observed it in rivers, when the middle of the stream has not been frozen, but never till the thermometer in the surrounding air has been below 18° . 'The standard temperature of the air in Philadelphia is $52\frac{1}{2}$, this is the temperature of the deepest wells and the mean heat of common spring water. The mean elevation of the barometer, is about 30 inches.' The springs in Pennsylvania are not pleasant, storms and cold weather sometimes extending to the beginning of May; June resembles a spring month in the southern countries of Europe, and autumn appears to be a very agreeable season, till the middle of October, when it terminates with excessive rains. Hurricanes also are not unknown in this country, but they seldom occur oftener than once in four or five years, and are most frequent and destructive in autumn. To this account are added two meteorological tables, which were taken at different places.

The great variety of weather experienced in Pennsylvania, 'by which, as Dr. Rush observes, the climate is a compound of most of the climates in the world,' will at once suggest the kind of diseases which the inhabitants of this country must be liable to, with an enumeration of which, and some other general observations, the paper is concluded.

3. *An Account of the Bilious Remitting Fever, as it appeared in Philadelphia in the Summer and Autumn of the Year 1780.*

This is preceded by a short account of the weather previous to the appearance of this disease: the several symptoms of the disease are then described, which we doubt not is done accurately and faithfully, and the paper concludes with the method of cure which was adopted by this intelligent and experienced physician; in which we shall only remark, 'that he bears testimony in favour of opium in this disorder, after the necessary evacuations have been made,' and that he heard of several cases in which bleeding was followed by a fatal termination of the disease.

4. *An Account of the Scarlatina Anginosa, as it appeared in Philadelphia, in the Years 1783 and 1784.*

5. *Additional Observations upon the Scarlatina Anginosa.*

This disease made its appearance about the close of August in the year 1783, and chiefly among children. In September it became epidemic among adults. It continued with little interruption till the following spring, and it moreover prevailed, at different seasons, till the end of the year 1788. The doctor gave an emetic joined with calomel in the beginning of the

the disease, and repeated the calomel in moderate doses, in every stage of it, and he attributes his success in the treatment of this disorder, principally to this medicine. In the course of its duration, it was blended occasionally with all the other epidemics, which required occasional variations in the mode of treatment.

6. *An Enquiry into the Cause and Cure of the Cholera Infantum.*

The principal symptom of this disease is a vomiting and purging; it affects children from the first or second week of their birth till they are two years old; and it usually occurs in the summer months. Gentle doses of ipecacuanha and tartar emetic, with a view of removing bile, opiates, demulcent and diluting drinks, injections with flaxseed tea, mutton broth, or starch, plasters of Venice treacle applied to the stomach, and tonic and cordial medicines, when the more violent symptoms are composed, are the chief remedies recommended by our author; but he adds that he has often seen them all administered without effect, and his principal dependance for many years has been on sending the patients into good country air. He has farther subjoined some directions which, from experience, he recommends as likely to prevent the disease.

7. *Observations on the Cynanche Trachealis.*

Dr. Rush has lately thought that there are two species of the cynanche, the spasmodic, and what he calls the cynanche trachealis humida. The symptoms and appearances of both these are described, and the method of treatment for the first, is bleeding, when the disease is connected with pulmonic symptoms, vomits, purges, and antispasmodic medicines: for the latter, the three first mentioned remedies and calomel.

8. *An Account of the Effects of Blisters and Bleeding, in the Cure of obstinate intermitting Fevers.*

This is a very short paper, and says little more than its title expresses, which is that when the bark does not succeed in stopping intermittents in a few days, blisters applied to the wrists will seldom fail to cure them.

9. *An Account of the Disorder occasioned by drinking cold Water in warm Weather, and the Method of curing it.*

A spasmodic affection, Dr. Rush informs us, is often produced in warm climates by an indiscretion of this kind, which in some cases has been fatal even in a few minutes. He considers laudanum as the only certain remedy, and he adds some cautions which, if attended to, may lessen the danger of drinking water under circumstances of great heat.

10. *An Account of the Efficacy of common Salt in the Cure of the Hæmoptysis.*

The author assures us, that from a tea to a table spoonful of clean fine salt taken at once, will stop a hæmorrhage from the lungs; Dr. Percival in a late paper in the memoirs of the London Medical Society, mentions having received the same account in a letter from Dr. Rush, in which he says, that he himself had lately a proof of its efficacy in his own person. This is certainly good authority, though the practice seems rather extraordinary.

11. *Free Thoughts upon the Cause and Cure of the Pulmonary Consumption.*

From the information of this paper we learn, that in Dr. Rush's opinion, the most certain means of preventing and even of curing consumptions, must be sought for in these exercises and employments which give the greatest vigor to the constitution, and that if there exist in nature a remedy for it, it will be found in the class of tonics.

12. *Observations upon Worms in the alimentary Canal; and upon anthelmintic Medicines.*

Dr. Rush is of opinion, that worms are not so often the cause of diseases as has been commonly imagined, as they pass away in many instances where their existence has not been suspected by any previous symptoms. We fully agree with him in this supposition, as we have ourselves had repeated experience of their coming away from children, not only when they have had fevers, but when they have undergone operations, particularly that for the stone, and also when they have had any other painful illness. But we must withhold our assent from his other conjecture, 'that children are sometimes disordered from want of worms.' As we cannot think, with him, that they 'serve some useful and necessary purposes in the animal œconomy.' He believes, however, that worms may be superabundant, and it being therefore sometimes proper to expel them, he has subjoined an account of experiments made with a variety of substances on worms; among which he seems to consider sugar and salt as very powerful in destroying them.

13. *An Account of the external Use of Arsenic in the Cure of Cancers.*

Dr. Rush was led to consider arsenic as salutary in cancers, from discovering that some of this mineral entered into the composition of a nostrum which had been much celebrated in North America; but as he himself informs us, it has long been known

known that arsenic forms the basis of many quack medicines for this disease.

14. *Observations on the Cause and Cure of the Tetanus.*

15. *Additional Observations upon the Tetanus and Hydrophobia.*

Dr. Rush's excellent method of treating this disease with tonics and cordials, has been long known, and has been very successfully followed. In the second paper, he is disposed to ascribe the symptoms of hydrophobia to the same proximate cause as the tetanus, and that both diseases may be prevented or cured, with equal certainty, by the same tonic remedies. All we can say is ; *fiat experimentum.*

16. *The Result of Observations made upon the Diseases which occurred in the Military Hospitals of the United States during the late War.*

This paper consists of twenty-six observations or aphorisms, the most striking of which is the last which says, 'that hospitals are the sinks of human life in an army, and that they robbed the United States of more citizens than the sword.'

17. *An Account of the Influence of the military and political Events of the American Revolution upon the human Body.*

This paper does not admit of an analysis ; but there are some remarks in it, which prove that the author possesses more than medical discernment.

18. *An Enquiry into the Relation of Tastes and Aliments to each other ; and into the Influence of this Relation upon Health and Pleasure.*

This is a whimsical and yet ingenious attempt to prove that the organ of taste, like that of hearing, is uniformly gratified or offended by certain objects, and that there is an harmony or discord in tastes as well as in sounds. Admitting that such principles have an existence in nature, we apprehend they are too much confounded with the impressions produced by habit, to be discriminated with sufficient accuracy, which we fear would prove an insuperable difficulty in an enquiry of this kind.

19. *Appendix, containing Observations on the Duties of a Physician, and the Methods of improving Medicine.*

Besides the general advice which is here given to young medical men, and which though we approve we cannot so much admire, as that of the late Dr. Gregory on the same subject, there is much which applies to their situations as Americans. To those who mean to reside in the country the author earnestly recommends settling immediately on farms, and dividing their labor

labor between medical practice and agriculture. This, as well as some of the preceding papers, seems to be written with a genuine spirit of patriotism; it is throughout sufficiently animated, and the valedictory part of it discovers a becoming affection to the persons to whom it is addressed. G.

ART. XVII. *Observations on the Rupture of the gravid Uterus: with the Sequel to Mrs. Manning's Case.* By Andrew Douglas, M. D. 8vo. Price 3s. 135 p. Johnson. 1789.

THIS important case has already been before the public, and has already, we doubt not, excited all the attention which was to be expected from an event at once so extraordinary and so interesting to humanity. As it has established the possibility of recovery after a circumstance hitherto considered as irremediable, it cannot fail to induce practitioners in all future cases of the same kind, to give the patient the chance of an immediate delivery; indeed the omission of such an endeavour to save life, would now be a criminal neglect.

The present re-publication contains an account of the situation of the patient since the time when the accident happened, and affords the following very important information; that not only life may be continued after the rupture of the uterus, but that even the peculiar offices of this part may be carried on after it; for Mrs. Manning, we find, has been, since, twice pregnant. In the latter part of both pregnancies, when the uterus began to be much distended, she suffered severely from a painful affection in the left hypogastric region, but it was most painful in the first pregnancy. The first delivery was effected by turning the child; Dr. Douglas, and the other gentleman who attended, preferring this mode of delivery, 'because it could be done with ease, and because they were fearful the uterus might again suffer from being allowed to act for any considerable time, after the liquor amnii was discharged.' In the subsequent labor it was agreed, on consultation, 'that it would be allowable and proper to trust the event to the natural efforts.' This was justified by its termination, for she was safely delivered by the natural pains.

We consider the practice of midwifery as materially benefited by the fact which is established by this case; and of course as much indebted to Dr. Douglas, not only for his management of the case so strongly marked by good sense and cool resolution, but for the ingenuous and intelligent manner in which he has recorded it. I.

ART. XVIII. *Medical Essays, 1. An Essay on the Principles and Manners of the Medical Profession. 2. An Enquiry into the Merits*

Merits of Solvents for the Stone. With Additions. London, J. Doddsley. 1789. 8vo. 91 p. Price 2s. 6d.

WE find it difficult to give either an analysis or opinion of the first of these essays, the former we shall not therefore attempt, and the latter we shall leave the reader to form from the two following sentences which occur before the end of the fourth page; the one we believe is meant to express some of the gratifications attending medical practice, and the other to describe some of the mortifications which are annexed to it. 'A husband or a father restored to the arms of a despairing wife and children; and the grateful voice of a parent snatched from the jaws of death, and pressing the hand of his benefactor to a glowing bosom, is *certainly a refined pleasure*, and one of as exalted and exquisite a nature as it has pleased our bountiful Creator to render the mind capable of enjoying.'

'His calamities (those of the medical man) are regarded as the avenging hand of heaven punishing his misdeeds; his prosperity will be considered as built on the ghastly ruins of mankind, and any eminence he may attain to in his profession, as an ingenious method of torturing the groans, the diseases, and the misfortunes of his fellow creatures, to the base purposes of avarice and sordid lucre.' Whoever before heard of an eminence being a method, or of torturing the groans of a fellow-creature?

We are glad we can speak with more commendation of the second essay. It may be perused with advantage both by those who are so unfortunate as to labour under the disease which is the subject of it, and by those whose province it is to perform the operation of lithotomy; to the first, after proving the total inefficacy of all medicines hitherto recommended as solvents, and shewing the danger, which, under such circumstances, ever attends procrastination, the author advises submission to the operation as the only means by which permanent relief can be obtained, and he encourages them to it by the general success which has hitherto attended lithotomy; to the second he urges cautions in performing the operation, which are worthy the notice even of those who are most celebrated as lithotomists.

Our author's account of the success of the operation is taken from the practice of the London hospitals, and principally exhibits that of Cheselden; had he added that of private practice and of country hospitals, we believe his account would have been still more in favour of the operation. Y,

ART. XIX. *Annales de Chimie, &c. or Annals of Chemistry*; by Messrs. de Morveau, Lavoisier, Monge, Berthollet, de Fourcroy,

croy, le Baron de Dietrich, Hassenfratz and Adet, Vol. II.
Paris, printed, and sold in London by de Boffe. 1789.

WE shall give a short account of the memoirs contained in this volume; at the same time observing, that the man of science will find it his interest to consult the work itself for such particulars as immediately coincide with his own pursuits.

1. *Extract from different Memoirs on Electricity, by Mr. Coulomb.*—This gentleman has published several memoirs among those of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, on magnetism and electricity, which are of great value. He measures the attractive and repulsive forces of these powers by a method of his own invention. It consists in observing the angle of torsion produced on a small lever, suspended by the middle from a thread of silk, or wire of metal. He has determined, by experiment and calculation, the pressures referred to gravity or weight by which these respective positions of the lever are produced. The quantities are so contrived as to be exceedingly minute; and in this way he has determined that the attractions and repulsions of electricity follow the law of the inverted ratio of the distances. The present abstract, though it occupies twenty-two pages, is very far from giving an adequate notion of Mr. Coulomb's memoirs, to which the philosophical electrician (for there are many electricians who are no philosophers) will receive much gratification by referring.

2. *Description and chemical Analysis of a Green Lead Ore; by M. de Fourcroy.*—This ore was found to contain 65 parts of arsenical salt of lead, 27 of phosphoric salt of lead, 5 of phosphoric salt of iron, and 3 of water.

3. *An Account of the Baron de Dietrich's work entitled Description des Gites de Minerais et des Bouches à feu de la France.*—From this account of the first and second volumes of the Baron's work, we find that his mineralogical travels, undertaken by order of the French government, promise to be of singular advantage, by the variety and value of the information they will convey not only to France, but to the world in general.

4. *A Continuation of the Experiments on the sulphureous Acid; by Mr. Berthollet.*—Mr. B. finds that sugar is the best addition for converting vitriolic into sulphureous acid by distillation in Woulfe's apparatus. The most concentrated sulphuric acid he could obtain by impregnating water with the acid air, (the liquid being kept cool by means of ice) was of the specific gravity of 1,040. By pouring sulphureous acid into lime water, an abundant precipitate was formed. Calcareous, ponderous, and argillaceous earths combine with this acid, and are suspended, if the acid be in excess. The sulphureous salt of magnesia

nesia is easily soluble, and forms chrystals. When iron wire is added to a mixture of vitriolic and sulphureous acid, sulphur is immediately precipitated, and a smell of hepatic air is disengaged. The habitudes of this acid with zinc, tin, mercury, lead, copper, and manganese, are likewise treated of, and several curious points of theory, more especially relating to the various effects of vital air or the oxigynous principle in its combination with bodies, are discussed with that ingenuity and acuteness which distinguish the productions of this author.

5. *M. Chaptal on the Means of making good Pottery at Montpellier, and a Glaze which may be used to cover them.*—Most of these observations are local; the glaze which is spoken of is composed of a coating of argillaceous earth of Murviel, which is fusible, and is laid on in the usual manner, by dipping the pottery into water in which it is diffused, and afterwards, when dry, it is dipped into a fine powder of green glass, suspended in like manner in water. The pottery thus coated, is said to become covered with a good glazing by the heat of a potter's furnace.

6. *Observations on some Phenomena exhibited in the Combustion of Sulphur; by Mr. Chaptal.*—This indefatigable chemist having observed that in the common combustion of sulphur by means of atmospherical air, almost every stage of acidification may be produced in that substance, according to the rapidity of the combustion, was desirous of avoiding the use of nitre in the manufacture of oil of vitriol. He has described the phenomena which accompanied his unsuccessful attempts, and also those which accompany the combustion of sulphur, with the addition of nitre. He appears to have relinquished the hope of converting sulphur into vitriolic acid without that addition.

7. *Considerations on several Effects of Light upon Bodies; by Mr. Dorthes.*—This author finds that camphor in a closed bottle being volatilized by heat, chrystallizes on the side next the light. The same effects were observed in evaporating fluids; such as spirits of wine, and the transpiration of plants and animals, all which were condensed on the side next the light. The author thinks that the motion of many flowers towards the sun, the attraction of vapours into the air, and several other effects, may arise from the same cause as that which occasions the phenomena he has spoken of.

8. *A chemical Analysis of the pretended Cubic Quartz, or Magnesia calcareous Borate; by Mr. Westrumb.*—Near Lunebourg, in the duchy of Brunswick, is a stratified mountain of gypsum, named Kalkberg. In a cleft at the top of this mountain are found chrystals of a singular form, which are known at Lunebourg by the name of Wurfelstein, or Cubic stone. The form of these chrystals, when closely examined, is not cubical, but constitutes a solid of 26 faces. Their colour is commonly white, often grey, and sometimes of an amethyst colour. They are

are mostly opaque, some are semi-transparent, and a few are perfect. Most of these crystals are corroded on their surface, and few are perfect. Many of them appear to be intimately penetrated with the substance which has corroded their surface; their texture is lamellated, and they are so hard that they cut glass, and plentifully give fire with the steel. Their specific gravity was 2,566. By a number of well conducted experiments, its component parts proved to be; of acid of borax, deprived of its water of crystallization by a red heat 68 parts; magnesia $13\frac{1}{2}$; lime 11; clay 1; calx of iron $\frac{3}{4}$; filix 2; and the loss upon the 100 parts was $3\frac{3}{4}$.

9. *New Experiments upon Magnesia, and the ammoniacal Muriate; by Mr. Westrumb.*—This intelligent paper contains a variety of experiments relating to the decomposition of sal ammoniac by magnesia, in the dry way, with the observations of the author. The brevity, from which we cannot depart, prevents us, however, from giving these results and observations in detail, and their abridgment is impracticable.

10. *Experiments on cubical Quartz, or calcareous Salt of Borax; by Mr. Heyer.*—This chemist was employed upon the cubical quartz at the same time as Mr. Westrumb. His experiments, as might be expected, are somewhat different from those of that chemist; but the results, like those of all well made analyses, nearly agree.

11. *M. Berthollet on the Bleaching of Cloths and Thread by the oxigenated muriatic Acid, and some other Properties of this Liquid relative to the Arts.*—Mr. B. gives a short account of the experiments of Scheele and others, including his own most important experiments on this acid. He finds that it is not necessary to employ the concentrated liquor, nor to leave the cloth immersed for a long time in it. The most convenient proportions of the substances required to produce the oxigenated acid by distillation, were found to be the following: 6 ounces of a good calx of manganese reduced to powder; 1 pound of sea salt likewise in powder; 12 ounces of concentrated vitriolic acid, and 8 or 12 ounces of water. If the calx of manganese contains earths or foreign metallic substances, it must be used in greater quantity in proportion to its impurity. At the end of the operation it will be seen whether a sufficient quantity has been employed, because a part will remain of a black colour. The subsequent operations may of course be regulated by attending to this circumstance. The other precautions for conducting the operation of bleaching in the large way by means of the oxigenated or dephlogisticated acid, are well worth the attention of the manufacturer; and it is with great pleasure we learn that Mr. Watt, to whose chemical and mechanical exertions society is so greatly indebted, has already pursued

pursued this object with success at Glasgow; and that bleacheries of this kind are carrying on at Manchester.

12. *Extract from M. Gadolin's Animadversions on the new Method of chemical Nomenclature.*—Mr. Gadolin, in his Latin dissertation, makes a variety of remarks upon the new system of nomenclature, and ends his dissertation by observing, that though the antiphlogistic theory appears to him to possess some indications of truth, yet that of phlogiston does not seem repugnant to the facts, and that he presumes the science of chemistry to be not yet sufficiently advanced to admit of the formation of a theory and a nomenclature.

13. *Analysis of the Green Lead Ore of Erlenbach in Alsace, with Remarks on the Analysis of phosphoric Lead Ores in general; by Mr. de Fourcroy.*—This chemist dissolved the ore in boiling marine acid, precipitated the lead and iron by volatile alkali, and dissolved the solutions afteredulcoration in marine acid, from which, after evaporation to dryness, he separated the martial salt by means of alcohol. The quantity of lead was ascertained by dissolving the last mentioned residue in water, and decomposing it by volatile alkali, which affords a precipitate of $112\frac{1}{2}$ grains for every 100 grains of lead. The quantity of phosphoric acid may be known from that of the metals, or otherwise the liquor from which the first precipitate was obtained by volatile alkali, contains sal ammoniac, and phosphorated volatile alkali. It is not easy to obtain the phosphoric salt by evaporation, because of the loss it sustains in that process. Mr. de Fourcroy therefore adds lime water, which affords a precipitate of phosphorated lime. Of this 94 parts in the 100 are phosphoric acid. The green lead ore was composed of 79 parts calx of lead, 1 part calx of iron, 18 parts phosphoric acid, and 2 parts water.

14. *Extract of a Memoir on the mutual Action of metallic Calces, and volatile Alkali; by Mr. de Fourcroy.*—The combination of volatile alkali with gold is well known in the preparation of aurum fulminans. Mr. de Fourcroy has determined the like action between volatile alkali and the calces of manganese, mercury, iron, and several other metallic substances. When caustic volatile alkali is poured into a solution of manganese in vitriolic acid, the calx is precipitated in the form of brown flocks, which soon separate from each other, and are agitated by bubbles of elastic fluid that rise to the surface, the precipitate assuming a white colour. As the calx is thus reduced, and the elastic fluid is found to be azote or phlogisticated air, Mr. de Fourcroy justly concludes that the volatile alkali is decomposed. A similar effect is seen when mercurial nitre is precipitated by volatile alkali. But corrosive sublimate in like circumstances affords a white precipitate, which is a triple salt. Iron dissolved in the nitrous acid exhibits phenomena of the

the same kind, the precipitate being of a brown colour. Mr. de Fourcroy has likewise applied the volatile alkali directly to several metallic calces, in which it produced either complete or partial revivifications, attended with a disengagement of azotic gas.

15. *Account of M. Lavoisier's elementary Treatise of Chemistry.*—This has already passed under our notice *.

16. *M. Cavendish on the Formation of nitrous Acid, and Austin on the Volatile Alkali.*—These two papers are abstracted from the Philosophical Transactions of last year †.

17. *Extract of a Letter from Mr. Van Marum to Mr. Berthollet.*—Mr. Van Marum has repeated the experiment of Mr. Monge, by passing the electric spark through fixed air. Charcoal was ignited, and afterwards heated with red precipitate; the produce was fixed air, and some watery vapours, though every care had been taken to exclude water by heating the apparatus, and the air itself was confined by boiled mercury. The electric spark was passed through this until the augmentation of bulk was nearly $\frac{1}{10}$ of the whole: The fixed air being then absorbed by caustic alkali, the residue proved to be inflammable. Hence Mr. Van Marum and Mr. Landriani conclude that charcoal contains inflammable air, but not that this inflammable air is the phlogiston; for otherwise they observe that it would have been employed in reviving the mercury, and not in forming water. On this subject much, however, remains to be done. Those who doubt the composition of water, and are well aware of the extreme difficulty of clearing elastic substances of that fluid, will have many objections to suggest upon this occasion ‡.

18. *M. de Fourcroy on the Precipitation of Epsom Salt by the three mild Alkalies, and on the Properties of chrystallized mild Magnesia.*—In this memoir Mr. de Fourcroy, after concisely relating the discoveries of former chemists, proceeds to state his own observations. When Epsom salt is decomposed by vegetable alkali, saturated with fixed air, no precipitation follows, because the quantity of fixed air disengaged from the alkali by the vitriolic acid is so considerable as to form a soluble salt, which separates in needle-formed chrystals by exposure to the air, at the temperature of about 60 degrees. Ebullition, however, by expelling the redundant portion of fixed air, causes the mild magnesia to fall down. When the mineral alkali is used, some precipitate is afforded in the cold, and the clear liquid exposed to the temperature of about 60°, affords in the course of some days very regular hexagonal chrystals of magnesia combined with fixed air, which are transparent, and measure from 3 to

* See Vol. IV. page 52. † See Vol. II. page 389, 395. ‡ See Kirwan's Phlogiston, 2d edit. page 192, 193.

5 lines long, and 2 lines in diameter. Ebullition likewise separates the mild magnesia from the compound solution of Epsom salt and mild mineral alkali. The mild volatile alkali affords no precipitate in the cold when added to a solution of Epsom salt. A degree of heat under that of boiling throws down mild magnesia, but at the boiling temperature this precipitate is dissolved, and appears to be a triple salt, consisting of marine acid, volatile alkali, and mineral alkali. If the mixture of mild volatile alkali and Epsom salt in solution be not heated, but suffered to stand in an open vessel of an oblong figure, the fixed air is gradually dissipated, and the aerated magnesia is deposited in finer and larger chrystals than can be obtained by any other process.

The chrystallized mild magnesia has scarcely any taste, is soluble in about 40 or 50 times its weight of water, effloresces in the air, and is reduced to a powder by heat. It contains 25 parts water, 25 magnesia, and 50 of fixed air, which proportions are very different from those of the precipitated mild magnesia: For this last contains 40 magnesia, 48 fixed air, and 12 water.

19. *Observations on the Origin of Tincal, or Borax.*—Notwithstanding the publication of two papers on the origin of borax in our Philosophical Transactions for 1787, and the account which long before was given by Mr. Grill Abrahamson, and quoted by Kirwan in his mineralogy, the slow progress of chemical information is such, that Mr. Lavoisier, in his Elementary Treatise of Chemistry, speaks of the origin of this substance as unknown. In the extract from Mr. Sanders's Account of Thibet, the better information is conveyed, for which we may refer our readers to page 329 of the last volume of our Review.

20. *Extracts from the second Vol. of Croll's Chemical Annals for 1788.*—We must refer the inquisitive chemist to the work itself for these short notices of the pursuits and discoveries of the German chemists, as it is impossible to curtail them with effect, and none of them appear of sufficient importance to be copied.

V.

ART. XX. *Asiatic Researches, &c.* [Continued from page 201.]

THE first article of this curious collection is a dissertation, by the President Sir Wm. Jones, *on the Orthography of Asiatic Words in Roman Letters.* It is justly observed by the author, that a want of attention to this object has occasioned great confusion in history and geography. Almost every writer has a method of notation peculiar to himself; but no complete system has yet appeared, by which every original sound may be invariably rendered by one appropriated symbol.

• The

‘ The antient Greeks, (says our author) who made a voluntary sacrifice of truth to the delicacy of their ears, appear to have altered, by design, almost all the oriental names; and even their more modern geographers, who were too vain of their own language to learn any other, have so strangely disguised the proper appellations of countries, cities and rivers in Asia, that, without the guidance of the sagacious and indefatigable D’ANVILLE, it would have been as troublesome to follow ALEXANDER through the *Panjab* on the Ptolemaick map of *Agathodaemon*, as actually to travel over the same country in its present state of rudeness and disorder.’

Though the orthography of D’Herbelot is less defective than that of other writers on similar subjects, still it requires more than a moderate knowledge of *Persian*, *Arabic* and *Turkish*, to comprehend his quotations. The first couplet of an Arabic elegy of *Ibnu-zaidun* is thus expressed by him in Roman characters :

‘ Iekad hein tenagikom dhamairna;
Iacdhâ âlainâ alafia laula tassina.’

and the meaning, according to D’Herbelot, is, *The time will soon come, when you will deliver us from all our cares: The remedy is assured, provided we have a little patience.* Our author thinks this version palpably erroneous, though it be not easy to correct the error; and guesses that the original distich should be thus expressed :

‘ Yecâdu hînna tunâjicun demâyerunâ
Yakdî âlainâ ’âsafay lau lâ taâsînâ.’

which he renders, *When our bosoms impart their secrets to you, anguish would almost fix our doom, if we were not mutually to console ourselves.* We are, however, of opinion, that Sir William is here in the wrong; and that D’Herbelot’s version is the true one: as, we doubt not, it will appear when the original work of *Ibnu-zaidun* shall be made public. Sir William’s conclusion is not, for that, the less deduceable: namely, that “such perplexities could not have arisen, if D’Herbelot, or his editor, had formed a regular system of expressing *Arabic* in *Roman* characters, and had apprized his readers of it in his introductory dissertation.”

In fact, had D’Herbelot told us, that he always expressed such and such Arabic letters by such and such French letters, or combination of French letters, we should lie under no difficulty in decyphering his quotations; and might readily translate them back into the Arabic alphabet. But as D’Herbelot, and almost every other European writer, had no uniform system of notation; and have expressed Asiatic words and phrases in Roman letters, according to the pronunciation of those letters in their own peculiar languages, it is impossible, without a thorough knowledge of the Asiatic dialects and Asiatic history, to trace the etymon of such words and phrases: and he who
should

should invent a sure method of preventing this confusion, would undoubtedly deserve well from the republic of letters.

‘ There are two general modes (says our author) of exhibiting Asiatic words; each recommended by respectable authorities. The first professes to regard, chiefly, the pronunciation of the words intended to be expressed; and this method, as far as it can be pursued, is unquestionably useful.’

We cannot acquiesce in this. Nothing can be more fallacious than this same pretended pronunciation. Scarcely two pairs of lips utter, scarcely two pairs of ears receive the same individual sound. Consult the vocabularies of the South-Sea islands, as given us by Cooke and Bougainville: you would hardly think that their acoustic organs had been similar. Nay, King and Cooke, though both Englishmen, seem to have heard very differently.—Our author himself seems persuaded of this, when he adds:

‘ But new sounds are very inadequately presented to a sense not formed to receive them; and the reader must, in the end, be left to pronounce many letters and syllables precariously: besides that by this mode of orthography all grammatical analogy is destroyed, simple sounds are represented by double characters, vowels of one denomination stand for those of another, and possibly, with all our labour, we perpetuate a provincial or inelegant pronunciation.’

Nothing can be more just than these observations; which the ingenious author illustrates, by an apposite example from the French.

‘ Suppose, says he, that the French had adopted a system of letters wholly different from ours, and of which we had no types in our printing-houses: let us conceive an Englishman, acquainted with their language, to be pleased with Malherbe’s imitation of Horace, and desirous of quoting it in some piece of criticism. He would read thus in his original:

‘ La mort a des rigueurs à nulle autre pareilles;
On a beau la prier:
La cruelle, qu’elle est, se bouche les oreilles,
Et nous laisse crier.

Would he then express these verses in Roman characters, exactly as the French themselves express them? His pronunciation, good or bad, would perhaps be thus represented:

‘ Law more aw day reegyeuws aw nool otruh parellyuh,
Onne aw bo law preeay;
Law crooellyuh k’ellay, fuh boofshuh lays oreellyuh;
Ay noo layfuh creeay.’

Although we do not think that an Englishman, well acquainted with French grammar, would thus express the above stanza; yet we are perfectly agreed with Sir W. J. that this method of vernaculizing any foreign language is highly ridiculous.

The second system of Asiatic orthography consists in scrupulously rendering letter for letter, without any particular care

to preserve the pronounciation. This method has found two able supporters in Halhed and Wilkins. The notation of the former is generally clear and accurate: but Sir W. is dissatisfied with his using double letters for the long vowels, intermixing Italic and Roman letters in the same word, and expressing his diphthongs without analogy to the sounds of which they are composed.

Mr. Wilkins's system "principally consists of double letters to signify our third and fifth vowels, and of the common prosodial marks to ascertain their brevity or length: but those marks are so generally appropriated to books of prosody, that they never fail to convey an idea of metre: nor, if either prosodial sign were adopted, would *both* be necessary; since the omission of a long mark would evidently denote the shortness of the unmarked vowel, or conversely."

Sir W. however, allows that Wilkins's is a very proper notation for *Sanscrit* words, and is perfect in its kind; but that something is still required more "universally expressive of Asiatic letters."

The author now proceeds to unfold his own system; the convenience of which, he says, "has been proved by careful observation and long experience." It is introduced by a short analysis of articulate sounds. The primary elements of articulation are the *soft* and *hard* breathings. There are in our language *five* simple vocal sounds which occur in the words AN INNOCENT BULL. These are all short vowels; and if an Italian were to read the same words, he would give the sound of each corresponding long vowel. Between these *ten* vowels are numberless gradations, which use only can teach; and by the composition of them all, might be formed an hundred diphthongs, and a thousand triphthongs. The tongue is the principal instrument in articulating two articulate sounds which have something of a vocal nature, and which coalesce with such ease, that a mixt letter may be formed of them.

By the assistance of the tongue and palate are produced two congenial sounds, differing only as *hard* and *soft*; with some varieties.

Next come the different classes of *Dentals*, the *sibilant*, the *lisping*, and the *nasal*.

The *Labials* form the last series, most of which are pronounced by the appulse of the lips on each other, or on the teeth; and one of them by their perfect close.

A perfect system of letters ought to contain (says Sir W.) one specific symbol for every sound used in pronouncing the language to which they belonged: in which respect the old *Persian* or *Zend* approaches to perfection: but the Arabian alphabet appears to me so complete for the purpose of writing Arabic, that not a letter could be added or taken away without manifest inconvenience: and the same may be

undoubtedly said of the *Dévanāgarī* system; which, as it is more naturally arranged than any other, shall here be the standard of my particular observations on *Asiatic* letters.

Sir Wm. thinks our English alphabet and orthography disgracefully imperfect; yet he allows that "by the help of diacritical marks used by the French, with a few of those adopted in our treatises on fluxions, we may apply it so happily to the notation of all Asiatic languages, as to equal the *Dévanāgarī* itself in precision and clearness; and so regularly, that any one who knew the original letters, might rapidly and unerringly transpose into them all the *proper names*, *appellatives*, or *cited passages* occurring in tracts of *Asiatic* literature."

This is certainly promising a great deal; perhaps, in reality, more than can possibly be performed by means of any notation whatever. We are persuaded, nevertheless, that Sir William's method of notation is the most ingenious that has hitherto been invented. We are only sorry he did not make the well-known *Arabic* alphabet the *standard* of his observations, instead of the *Dévanāgarī*; it would have been much more intelligent to his European readers.

The *Dévanāgarī* alphabet consists of fifty symbols; of which our author treats, separately, in eighteen pages.

It is impossible for us, without *Dévanāgarī* characters, to give a detailed account of their contents: but we will exhibit to our readers the result, in what Sir W. calls

THE SYSTEM OF INDIAN, ARABIAN, and PERSIAN LETTERS.

SOFT BREATHINGS.						HARD BREATHINGS.			
a or e.						ha		hha	
VOWELS.		DIPHTHONGS.				SEMIVOWELS.			
ă, ā	- -	a, à	- -	e	è	- -	ya		
i	- -	ì	- -	o	ò	- -	wa		
u	- -	ù	- -	ai	au	- -	ra		
rī	- -	rī	- -	lrī	lrī	- -	la		
ââ	- -	êê	- -	îî	ûû	- -	âî		

CONSONANTS.

ca	-	-	c'ha	}	-	-	ga	}	-	-	'na
ka	-	-	kha		-	-	za		-	-	'sa
sa	-	-	sha	}	-	-	'da	}	-	-	'na
t'a	-	-	t'ha		-	-	da		-	-	na
ta	-	-	{ t'ha tha }	}	-	-	ba	}	-	-	ma
pa	-	-	{ p'ha fa }		-	-	va		-	-	

COMPOUNDS.

COMPOUNDS.

cha	ch'ha	ja	jha	nya
za	za	za	csha	inva

‘ All the sounds used in *Sanscrit, Arabic, Persian, and Hindu,* says our author, ‘ are arranged systematically in the foregoing table.’ We are inclined to consider this system as too complex ; and think, that the *Arabian* or even the *Hebrew* alphabet, has a sufficient number of symbols to express simple sounds ; and compound ones, we fear, will never be properly represented by any symbols. In the notation of foreign words, if the primary elements be discernible, it is all that is necessary. The true pronunciation of a language no rules can teach. It is the *picture*, not the *sound* of the word, that we require ; in order to come at the original meaning : and we could undertake to give in 22 of our own letters, a better *picture* of *Arabic* and *Persian* words, than Sir W. does with his 72 symbols and combinations. Give us only the consonants, and real vocal signs ; we want no more. The sound of the *inherent* vowel, as Sir W. justly terms it, is so vague and various, that it cannot be fixed. Not two provinces, perhaps not two families, pronounce it quite alike. The North Briton, who reads *bad* and pronounces *bawd* ; will not, for that, less distinguish the two words : nor will the Englishman who reads *Rue S. Jacques*, and pronounces *roo S. Jack*, confound the first word with the French *roue* ; or think that the last has any connection with the English *pike*.

But to proceed.—Sir W. agreeably to the foregoing analysis of letters, would, if he were to adopt a new mode of English orthography, write Addison’s description of an angel in the following manner.

‘ Sò hwen sm énjel, bai divain cāmánd,
Widh raisin tempests shécs a gilti land,
Sch az äv lét ör pël Britanya pást.
Cálm and firín hi draivz dhi fyúryas bláft,
And, plíz’d dh’ álmaitiz árdertz tu perfórm,
Raids in dhi hwerlwind and dairects dhi stārm.

This mode of writing poetry, would, our author thinks, ‘ be the touchstone of bad rhymes, which the eye, as well as the ear would instantly detect.’ We doubt, and would recommend to our poets, to adhere to the old orthography.

Sir. W. closes his paper with specimens of oriental writing, ‘ not as fixt standards of orthography, but as examples of the method’ which he recommends.

The first of these is four distichs from the *Sri-Chágawat* in Mr. Wilkins’s, and his own orthography ; the difference between

tween which will appear from a comparison of the two first lines.

MR. WILKINS'S *Orthography*.

‘ Ahāmēvāsāmēvāgrē nānyādyāt sādāsātpārām
Pāschādahām yādētāchchā yōvāsēēshyētā sōsmiyāhām.’

SIR. W. JONES'S *Orthography*.

‘ Ahamēvāsamēvāgrē nānyadyat sadasat param
Pāschādaham yadētachcha yōvāsihyēta sōsmiyaham.’

We confess, we see no great improvement here, on Mr. Wilkins's method; except that the accentual notes are diminished: yet whatever tends to simplicity, is some improvement.

The second specimen consists of thirteen stanzas, called *The Mallet of Delusion*; composed (Sir W. tells us) ‘ in regular *Anapaests*, according to the strictest rules of Greek prosody; but in rhymed couplets; two of which form a *Sloca*. The first *Sloca* runs thus,

‘ Mūdha jahīhi dhanāgamatrīshnām
Curu tenubuddhimanah suvitriśhnām
Yallabhasē nijacarmōpattam
Vittam tēna vinodaya chittam.’

That is,

Restrain, deluded! thy thirst of acquiring wealth; excite an aversion (from it) in (thy) body, understanding and inclination: with the riches, which thou acquirest by thy own actions, with these gratify thy soul.

The third specimen is a love elegy in *Arabic*, replete with oriental hyperbole, e. g.—‘ It was a night, when the eye-lashes of the moon were tinged with the *alcohol* of the gloom: in which thou mightest have seen the clouds, like camels, eagerly gazing on the stars; while the eyes of heaven wept on the bright borders of the sky!’ Such is the sublime of Oriental poetry!—we mean of modern Oriental poetry.

The fourth specimen is a passage from the *ZEND*, in the old Persian language and character; and is supposed to be the answer of *IZAD*, or *GOD*, to *Zerāh-tusht*; who had asked by what means mankind could attain happiness. The following is Sir W.'s verbal translation of it.

‘ If you do that with which your father and mother are not pleased, you shall never see heaven: instead of good spirits, you shall see evil beings. Behave with honesty and with respect to the great; and on no account injure the mean. Hold not your poor relations a reproach to you. Imitate the justice and goodness of the only Creator. Meditate on the resurrection of the future body; lest you make your souls and bodies the inhabitants of hell. Whatever would be displeasing to yourselves, think not that pleasing to others. Whatever good you do on earth, for that you shall receive a retribution in heaven.’

Sir

Sir W. suspects, that this doctrine has been taken from a religion very different, both in age and authority, from that of *Zerâb-tusht*.

The fifth specimen, is a story in modern Persian; which 'seems to be extracted from one of the many poems on the loves of *Mejun* and *Laili*; the *Romeo* and *Juliet* of the East. Each verse consists of a *cretic* foot, followed by two *choriambi*, or a *choriambus* and a *molossus*.' They run thus in Sir William's notation.

' Shî rmafti feri pistâni âlem
Perveresh yâftehi dâmeni ghem.

' Âbi rang ò rokhi lailâyi jonûn
Khâli rokhsârehi hâmun mejnûn.'

Translation.

' 1. The man, who had in inebriated himself with milk from the nipple of anguish, who had been nourished in the lap of affliction.

' 2. MENJÛN, mad with the bright hue and fair face of LAILI; himself a dark mole in the cheek of the desert, &c.'

The sixth specimen is a little *Ghazal* or *Hindi* love song in a *Choriambic* measure; thus articulated,

' Muddaîi hemsè fokhan lâz bi fâlûsî hai
Ab tamennâ cò yehân mudzhdei mâyûfî hai.'

That is,

' My beloved foe speaks of me with dissimulation; and now the tidings of despair are brought hither to the desire of my soul, &c.'

Such is Sir William's method of noting in Roman letters the principal languages of Asia.

' Nor can I doubt,' says he, ' that *Armenian*, *Turkish*, and the various dialects of *Tartary*, may be expressed in the same manner with advantage: but as *Chinese* words are not written in alphabetical characters, it is obvious, that they must be noted according to the best pronunciation used in *China*; which has, I imagine, few sounds capable of being rendered by the symbols used in this essay.'

This however has been attempted; and we are credibly informed, that a Spanish gentleman who resided forty years in China, has ready for the press a complete Chinese grammar, written entirely in Roman characters. It is to be hoped that he will be encouraged to print it, by the present king, whose love of letters, and attention to learned men are well known.

[To be continued.]

ART. XXI. *A Letter to the Clergy of the Diocese of Sarum: to which are added, Directions relating to Orders, Institutions, and Licences.* By Shute, Lord Bishop of Sarum. 8vo. 63p. pr. 1s. Salisbury, Collins. London, Rivingtons, 1789.

WE have no great opinion of the efficacy of episcopal charges, given by the bishops to their inferior brethren, as they are kindly styled, whether delivered by Mr. Archdeacon, in a visitation sermon, or circulated by his Lordship in a letter. If reformation be really intended, the reverend father in God should often *visit* the ministers of his flock. He should *see* how they live, and be, as occasion requires, the guide, the rewarder, and corrector of his people. They should be, as they were intended to be, in an extensive sense, 'of his own household.' In short, he should *know* them; and the great gulph that now lies between *brethren* should be removed.

We offer these remarks without the least reference to any individual. They are of general import. Many respectable members of the parochial clergy feel, and lament their truth; while the less worthy rejoice in their own obscurity, and their exemption from episcopal censure.

But we hasten to give some account of the bishop of Sarum's letter. It is sensible, temperate, and pious. The topics on which his Lordship addresses his clergy are as follow: Sunday schools; the king's proclamation, and the society for carrying it into effect; the repair of churches; the state and management of the fund arising from queen Ann's bounty; the commutation of tythe for land. We transcribe his Lordship's sentiments on this head as clear, comprehensive, and, we think, satisfactory.

* The question of commuting tythe for land has been much agitated within the remembrance of the youngest among you: and happy, in my opinion, would it have been for the parochial clergy, where the commutation has taken place, had it been canvassed earlier. The respective merits would then have been better understood, and the clergy less hastily induced, by the specious appearance of an increased income, which could in general be but of short duration, to exchange tythe, sanctified by immemorial usage; confirmed by a series of legal decisions; the benefits of which they had for centuries experienced, for a provision, at its commencement precarious and uncertain, the inconveniences of which remain unfelt in their full extent to the present hour; but which, unless greatly deceived, I fear will ultimately be felt in the severest degree.

* The only argument in support of the commutation, which has an air of plausibility, is, that it cuts off all occasion of dispute between a minister and his parishioners. Were esteem, harmony, and affection, so essential to the instruction of the first, the benefit of the last, and the comforts of both, unattainable by any other mode, there is no sacrifice which should not gladly be made to secure them. But may it not be asked, whether this argument has not been urged too far on one side, and too easily admitted on the other? Clamour was raised on this plea,
and

and like all unfounded popular cries, has died away. The truth is that the circumstances of the clergy in general must ever render them contented with a moderate composition. They rarely have recourse, unimpelled, to what they can but ill bear, the heavy expence of litigation. A well known fact corroborates this assertion, and ascertains, that when dragged to the courts at Westminster, the decisions in their favour have been in the proportion of six to one.

The advantages of tythe to such a body of men as the parochial clergy, are too well known to require a distinct enumeration. The disadvantages which, after a certain period, must accrue from the commutation, have not yet been sufficiently adverted to. And as application to Parliament for bills of inclosure or partition still continue, and I hope will long continue to take place in this diocese, I hold myself bound to hint, for it would carry me too far to fully state, what I conceive some of those disadvantages are.

By exchanging such a right as tythe for land, the incumbent subjects himself and his successors to all the burthens of landed property; in which he has only a tenure for life. Repairs, and in process of time most heavy repairs, on buildings and fences from which he was before exempted; losses by bad and insolvent tenants; a mismanaged and exhausted soil, are among the certain and probable consequences of his ill-judged choice, even to himself. But they must sooner or later inevitably fall on his innocent successors, and leave them without money to stock, without experience to manage a farm, which may constitute their sole subsistence; and which were the occupying it by the clergy to become universal, would prove the bane of letters, science, professional studies, and religion.

The remaining part of the letter is occupied in giving instructions relating to the appointment of curates; keeping of registers; the studies, avocations, and dress of the younger clergy; the abuse of giving testimonials as a matter of form, and the necessary preparations for taking orders.

ART. XXII. *A Letter to the Right Reverend Samuel, Lord Bishop of St. David's; occasioned by his Sermon on the Principle of Vitality in Man, &c. Preached on Sunday, March 22d, 1789, for the Benefit of the Humane Society.* 8vo. 44 p. pr. 1s. 6d. Johnson, 1789.

THE principle of vitality in man, must necessarily be a very abstruse subject, as it involves, in some measure, one of the chief difficulties in the study of physiology. That life was originally given, and is still communicated by the active energy of the Almighty Father, all are agreed; but when we consider the operation of secondary causes in producing this effect; when we wish to apply the laws of motion to the spirit that animates the body, and attempt to investigate, with philosophical exactness, their union, their mutual dependence, and dissolution, all becomes scepticism and darkness, or mere hypothesis.

In reviewing bishop Horsley's ingenious discourse, we laid before our readers a copious extract, that contained the sub-

stance of his argument, and gave him credit for rational investigation, and strength of argument; but we by no means admitted that his doctrine was conclusive, or unexceptionable. The author of the present letter has proved that it is not so. He objects to his Lordship's interpretation of Scripture, to his principles of vitality, and, in short, to almost every thing that he has advanced. On such a subject, indeed, there is no end of argument and controversy.

The following passage may serve as a specimen of the author's performance, who, though he has not clearly informed us what his *own* sentiments are, ably controverts those of the learned prelate, and expresses himself in elegant and perspicuous language.

‘If (according to your Lordship) the union of the immortal spirit to the body, first set the machine in motion; and if (as you must allow) it be in consequence of the continuance of that union that the motion is continued, what imaginable restraint or impediment shall put a stop to the motion while the union lasts? The infusion of the immaterial principle, you say, first gave life and motion to the before motionless and inanimate clay; and shall it not preserve life and motion, so long as that immaterial principle remains? But it happens, that in drowned persons the essential motions of life, respiration and the circulation of the blood are stopped, while yet (according to your Lordship's hypothesis) the soul remains in the body.

‘You will say, I know, that these motions belong only to the vegetable life, which is mechanical; and, indeed, I readily grant that in persons re-animated, the mechanism is often set in motion a considerable time before the principle of intelligence, or even that of perception, shews any signs of activity. But here, my Lord, you will meet with equal, or still greater difficulties; for you will be compelled to acknowledge either that the energies of what you call the vegetable life, are sufficient for the support of the vital motions of the body, or that the immaterial principle is insufficient for that support. I leave it to your Lordship to chuse which side of this dilemma you will take.

‘Some space,’ your Lordship says, ‘may intervene between the stopping of the clock-work of the body's life, and the departure of the immortal spirit.’ Of this space then your Lordship thinks there is a *maximum*. The reports of the HUMAN SOCIETY will shew you, my Lord, that to all appearance this *maximum* in different persons differs most remarkably. Some have been restored to life after a long interval of apparent death, while others, after a very short interval, have been found irrecoverable. The attachment then of the immortal spirit to the mortal machine, must in different cases differ extremely. I wish I knew whether your Lordship would allow some portion of an immaterial principle, some spark of that aetherial fire to the lower animals; for, assuredly, the vegetable or mechanical life in quadrupeds, may be suspended and restored by the same means as in the human species. Your Lordship, perhaps, can tell us in what degree the presence of an immaterial soul is more requisite in one case than in the other. If the presence of an immaterial principle constitute the state of life in man and quadrupeds, the same will hold good, I suppose, in amphibious animals. These have cold blood, and are remarkably tenacious
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of life. And your Lordship will allow it to be the effect of a taste somewhat groveling in the immaterial principle, that it should remain more closely and intimately attached to the clock-mechanism of a toad or viper, than to that of an archdeacon, bishop, or cardinal.'

ART. XXIII. *A Charge to the Clergy of the Archdeaconry of St. Alban's, at the primary Visitation, held May 7th, 1789.* By Joseph Holden Pott, M. A. Prebendary of Lincoln, and Archdeacon of St. Alban's. 4to. 19p. pr. 1s. Rivingtons, 1789.

A MODEST and sensible address, exhorting the clergy to take an active part in the duties of social life, without conforming to the vices of the world, or mixing, on 'equal terms,' in scenes of pleasure and dissipation. The following extract may serve as a specimen.

'If we desire to copy the apostle's example in becoming all things to all men, the same teacher will instruct us how this is to be effected with safety: it must not be by feeling less for the honour of religion, than we do for the fame and credit of a friend; or by a false courtesy which permits vice to hang out all her colours, unproved: these are no apostolical counsels: it must rather be by learning to weep with those that weep; to rejoice with those that rejoice; by knowing both how to want, and how to abound; by sanctifying the good things of life with prayer and thanksgiving, as Job sanctified his children day by day, in the time of their rejoicing. These are safe measures of our duty, and will enable us to keep a social place in the companies of men, without hazard. It is not by the sourness of the fasting Pharisee, but by the cheerfulness of a spirit truly mortified, that we must hope to gain our purpose. It is not by such a moroseness as will furnish blemished and contracted notions of religion, but by habits which may render truth alluring, and by a freedom chastened and discreet, that we must strive to win men. If we desire to adapt our endeavours to the temper of the world, it must be by skilful applications; by superseding and preventing the occasions of transgression with address; by leading every favourable turn in social life to the ends of truth and counsel, that religion may find a voice at other times beside those of solemn exhortation. To reconcile the precept of not conforming to the world, with these necessary assimilations, it will be most expedient and proper to shun those places where the votaries of vice usurp a large interest, and prevail in number and appearance; to cultivate just periods of retirement which may provide a fund for future diligence; and then to strive in due time to stem the torrent of corruption. In that return into the circles and societies of the world, there will be opportunities of celebrating truth in its effects.

'To teach and to defend our holy faith with vigour, constancy, and moderation; to avoid giving offence to weak and unstable minds; to prevent true candour from declining into dubious indifference; to preserve unfeigned and lively convictions from the taint of sroward and conceited petulance; to commiserate those who are in error, when false teaching and seduction do not aggravate the guilt; to love the persons

persons of all men, require no slender measures of sincere attachment, charity, and prudence; of a zeal which can glow without blazing, and sigh for truth without a shout. Let us not imagine that such an happy temper is beyond our reach, since it is certainly much within the power of God to give it; and he who has bidden us to ask, and promised to confer, encourages us to covet earnestly the best gifts.

Mr. Pott's language is, in general, chaste and elegant; but we think it sometimes wants perspicuity. Terms and ideas are coupled together that are too remote. It requires a separate effort of the mind to perceive their relation, and when the contrast is fully observed, there appears a sort of chasm that naturally divides the sense. This is, in our opinion, a frequent cause of obscurity in authors.

ART. XXIV. *On the Consideration due to the Clergy from their Importance in Society. A Sermon preached before the Sons of the Clergy of Pembroke-shire, June 30, 1789, at Haverford-west. By Charles Symmons, B. D. Rector of Narberth.* 4to. 34 p. Price 1s. Carmarthen, Ross. London, Williams. 1789.

WE were much pleased with this discourse. The author evidently possesses a strong, thinking mind, great sensibility, and an active imagination. The reader, therefore, might expect to find good composition, energetic language, and sentiments that will interest him.

Mr. S. takes a short view of the priestly office from the patriarchal ages, in different nations, to the time of the reformation in England. The importance of the clergy in society is strenuously maintained; and the author, after having adverted to the scanty provision allotted them in Wales, proceeds to recommend, in the most persuasive manner, the charity for which his sermon was composed. We make no apology for the length of the following extract:

'The Clergy, indeed, cannot be backward on this occasion; they must feel and acknowledge the more immediate pressure of the case. To them, therefore, it will be unnecessary for me to speak. If there be a member of our order, who, wrapt in the selfishness of fortune, can refuse his alleviation to distresses from which he happily feels himself removed:—if there be a man, who, uninfluenced by those considerations which the most powerfully actuate the body of his species, can be dead to the sufferings of his partners in the same nature, and in the same holy calling:—if there be such a man, let him be consigned to the contempt which he solicits; to the reproach of a contracted, and to the punishment of a cold heart!—But such a man there cannot, I think, be. Let me speak, then, to the laity; and, pressing the consequences of what has been advanced, urge them to consult their own good, by granting the suit which we prefer. And what is the object of our suit?—Opulence—to give fulness to our luxury, or stature to our pride? No:—satisfied with what we possess, we intreat you only to prolong to us the assurance of common bread!

bread! When our day of useful duty is closed by casualty or age, we beg you only to shelter us from the inclemency of the night!—Fainting on the bed of death, we implore you only to drive from that last scene the form of stern want, ready to crush the objects of our tenderest regard! This is our petition; and by your assent to it, you will maintain the vigour of the part of the society, on which the well-being of the whole depends. With the small encouragement for which we sue, you will raise up a succession of able and enlightened, as well as of zealous teachers. The heart of your political economy will be sound, and its strong pulse will send a pure circulation to every portion of the frame.

• But the interest, that I now urge, may be too subtle for the touch of the common hand; too extended and remote for the distinction of the common eye. Let me, then, advance for my cause another interest, more palpable, minute, and near. The very objects, whom you relieve, will give truth to the pleadings of their advocate, and present you with part of that ample remuneration, which he promises. From the infirm, indeed, and the aged, you can expect only the gratitude of their prayers.—Nor will even this gratitude be unfruitful. The hand will be lifted for you in petition—and the blessing will descend! But from the youthful objects of your beneficence, you will experience another compensation. You will see them rising to invigorate your community with the health of honest industry; or to enrich and adorn the apartments of your private life with frugality and virtue. Of the plants which you thus rear, some, perhaps, may shoot into such strong and lofty growth, as one day to give the protection which they now require. How delightful, then, will it be to contemplate the spread of the branch, that your care has enabled to extend! to repose in the security of the shade, which but for your cultivating hand, had perished in the bud!

• With the multitude of mankind might we confidently intrust our cause to arguments like these,—addressed to reason, and derived from self-interest properly understood. But there are some (shall I call them men?) who in the near advantage lose all sight of the greater: who acknowledge the substance of no interest, on which they cannot rest the hand; and who retire, within the circle of their own comforts, from the reproach of unrelieved distress. A character of this description I would drag to the sight of that misery, from which the timidity of his selfishness would fly. Yes:—trusting rather to the honesty of nature in him, than to the truth of reason, I would bring him to the fordid house—the cold chamber—the vile and uneasy bed, where lies the—**MINISTER OF GOD!** I would suspend his attention on every part of the wretchedness before him. I would bid him remark the trembling hand;—the pale and fallen cheek;—the faded eye soliciting pity, yet meek with resignation, and glimmering with heavenly hope! The simple and pathetic story of the man should form the comment on the scene. “That object, I would say, sprung from the goal of life with the same alacrity of expectation with yourself. His childhood was shown to science; and his youth unfolded beneath its beams. His manhood was dedicated to God! But too erect to stoop, or too ingenuous to importune, he saw preferment pass by him; and from duty hardened into labour, was he forced to wring the drop of daily support. At length he failed. Weakness and age withheld him from
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his post, and stretched him where you now see him; without those aids which our poor nature claims in our decay;—without the maintenance of income—the attentions of friends—the services of an attendant!—Doubtful if to-morrow, (should it rise on him,) will bring with it the small supplies which his feebleness exacts; and, from the brutality of that avarice, whose roof gives him its unwilling covering, scarcely assured of the bed, on which his infirmity reclines!”

After having borne this testimony to the merits of Mr. S. as a writer, we should not discharge the cold office of a reviewer, with strict impartiality perhaps, if we did not inform our readers, that the language is sometimes incorrect, chiefly from the frequent use of violent metaphors, and strained expressions.

ART. XXV. *A Sermon preached before the Governors of the Magdalen-Hospital, London: on Wednesday, the 28th of May, 1788.* By the Rev. George Henry Glasie, M. A. Rector of Hanwell, Middlesex, late Student of Christ-Church, Oxford; and published by the Desire of the Governors of the Hospital. Printed for the Hospital. 1788.

AN interesting and eloquent discourse, from Micah vii. 8. in support of the very excellent and humane institution for which it was preached. We transcribe the following passage:

‘ But is he not answerable for every degree of depravity into which the poor deserted female may afterwards be plunged, he who first undermined so promising a foundation, and banished from her tender heart the fear and the love of God? To the victim of his treachery then, in her most abandoned state, let some degree of pity be extended: there is not a more pitiable object in the world. Were it only, that with a soul, wrung by anguish, she is compelled to assume the appearance of cheerfulness—that amidst penury, disease, and remorse, she must mould her features into a faint and melancholy smile—That while her half-broken heart is perhaps musing on a disconsolate parent, or the much-loved home from whence she is exiled, she must join in the noise of revelry, and the shout of boisterous intoxication—surely this alone is misery worthy of all compassion. It is such as human nature cannot in any other instance equal.

‘ And shall it then be wondered at, that, despairing of brighter days, and deeming every prospect of happiness excluded from her eyes, she should prematurely seek for refuge, even in death, from the temporal misery that surrounds her? that she should hazard the utmost possible displeasure of the omnipotent God, by rushing uncalled and unprepared into eternity? However we may abhor the crime itself, we may surely lament the complicated woe by which it is occasioned.

‘ But should she by no act of desperation put a period to her ill-spent life, few, very few years pass over her head, till, sickness and sorrow conspiring to exhaust her frame, the poor outcast is summoned to the presence of the almighty. Into the melancholy circumstances of her departure the libertine refuses—to do him justice, perhaps he trembles to enquire. But shall not the ministers of Christ, whose office frequently

quently leads them to contemplate such scenes, shall they not endeavour to paint the miseries they are compelled to witness?—Vain and fruitless attempt!—The sons and daughters of levity will not vouchsafe them a moment's hearing. Those persons in particular, whom it most nearly concerns, turn away with disgust from the gloomy narrative. Be it so,—It is a tremendous picture of wretchedness. Let a veil be cast over it for ever.' F.

ART. XXVI. *A short View of the Life, Sentiments, and Character, of Mr. John Mort; in an Address to the Dissenters of Atherton; and in a Sermon preached in New Bent Chapel, Jan. 20, 1788.* By H. Toulmin. To which are added, two Family Prayers; by Mr. Mort. 8vo. p. 67. Price 1s. Johnson. 1789.

THE biography of a very pious, thinking man, and a very useful member of society. Mr. Mort, by reading and reflection, was induced to adopt Socinian principles, respecting the person of Christ. In other respects he appears to have, deviated but upon conviction, from the orthodox opinions. Mr. Toulmin, in this sermon, depicts his character with feeling and discrimination; and as his life must have been valuable to the survivors at Atherton, this amiable tribute to his memory must be highly acceptable.

ART. XXVII. *A Review of the Life, Character, and Writings of the Rev. John Biddle, M. A. who was banished to the Isle of Scilly, in the Protectorate of Oliver Cromwell.* By Joshua Toulmin, A. M. 12mo. p. 186. Price 2s. sewed. Johnson. 1789.

MR. TOULMIN is of opinion, 'That the questions concerning the doctrine of the Trinity, that have been lately agitated, properly render Mr. Biddle's character an object of curiosity to the present age.' The work is accordingly methodized, divided into chapters, and adapted to popular use. Mr. Toulmin, aware that the materials for his life are but scanty, and such as they are, have already been given to the world in the *Biographia Britannica*, and other works, dilates principally on the controversial part of the history of Mr. Biddle, whom Mr. T. styles the father of *English Unitarians*, and presents the reader with a full and satisfactory analysis of his writings, some of which have not been noticed before, and the answers of his antagonists. Mr. Biddle was a man of strong passions, and inflexible zeal. He claimed the privilege of forming and publicly avowing his own religious sentiments, for which he was severely persecuted; but he was acknowledged by all, to be a man of exemplary piety and virtue; by Anthony Wood, who had no religion, and very little candour; and by Neal, who with much candour, certainly thought but indifferently of Mr.

Mr. Biddle's religious tenets. Among other reflections, therefore, arising from the LIFE, Mr. Toulmin very justly infers, that "true piety is not peculiar to those who embrace a particular creed; but the genuine fruit of those principles which are common to all christians." Mr. Biddle was born in 1615, and died in consequence of imprisonment in 1662.

C. C.

ART. XXVIII. *A Sermon preached before the Governors of the Northampton Infirmary, at the Parish Church of All Saints, Northampton, Sept. 24, 1789.* By Joseph Jekyll Rye, A. B. Vicar of Dallington, and Chaplain to Lord Cathcart. 4to. p. 14. Price 1s. Chalklen. 1789.

A CALM and rational address to the understanding, in which the heart seems to have had no share. The language is smooth, and correct—neither broken by passion, nor animated by sentiment—it flows like the New River. F.

ART. XXIX. *Two Discourses:—1. On the Wisdom attainable by Meditation on the Vanity of Human Life, and the Benefits of Christianity. 2. Men more influenced by Example than Precept; evident from Sacred and Profane History. The Conduct of our Blessed Lord only perfect; consequently, the safest and best Model. Preached in the Chapel of the Asylum, March 8, 1789. With an Address to the Guardians and Children of the Asylum.* By the Rev. Samuel Hopkinson, A. M. late Fellow of Clare-Hall, Cambridge, &c. 4to. 50 p. Simmonds.

THERE is a sort of artificial elegance in the stile of these sermons, which appears almost disgusting, when we consider the flimsiness of the composition, and the uninteresting, threadbare sentiments that are strung together, but without forming a whole. We never saw two discourses so deficient in essentials with so fair a varnish. We cannot analyze them, because they seem to be all preliminaries without a body: and though the author has given us the subjects in his title-page; yet were we questioned as to the contents, we could only say with Hamlet, "Words, words, words." The numerous quotations are puerile and peccant.

ART. XXX. *A Sermon preached at the opening of the Independent Chapel in Bath, Oct. 4, 1789. Published by the Desire of the Audience.* By the Rev. William Jay. 8vo. Price 6d. Bath, Hazard. London, Dilly. 1789.

THIS sermon is of the middling class, on John iv. 21, 23. It is stuffed as full of texts as it could well hold; but it is adapted to the occasion; and what is more, to the taste of the congregation, we may suppose, since they desired its publication. F.

ART. XXXI. *Maxims of Piety and of Christianity*. By the late Right Rev. Thomas Wilson, D. D. Lord Bishop of Sodor and Man. 12mo. 285 p. Price 2s. 6d. bound. Bath, Cruttwell. London, Dilly. 1789.

THE pious labours of this venerable pastor in the christian church are well known. This piece, as well as the following, is re-published from the quarto edition of his works, and recommended by the editor, in a short, but sensible preface, as a useful manual of devotion for private families. We think it admirably calculated for this purpose. The fervent piety that breathes throughout the whole; the earnest, but temperate zeal, with which it is enforced, and the unaffected sincerity of the language, approach to something like apostolical instruction. In short, we never saw more evident proofs of a mind wholly devoted to the service of God, and the interests of religion, than in the pages of Bp. Wilson. He appears to have been infinitely superior to the vanities of *authorism*; and anxious only to discipline his own mind, or to edify the minds of others. Yet our veneration for his general character, will not prevent us from declaring, that we think he sometimes dwells with too much importance on the mere externals of religion; and in some doctrinal points, borders on superstition. Perhaps he had experienced the efficacy of a systematic faith with all its ceremonials in regulating his own devotions, and knew, that with the generality, if the *forms* of godliness were not kept up, the power also would soon be lost.

ART. XXXII. *Parochialia: or Instructions to the Clergy in the Discharge of the Parochial Duty*. By the Right Rev. Thomas Wilson, D. D. Lord Bishop of Sodor and Man. 12mo. 196 p. Price 2s. bound. Bath, Cruttwell. London, Dilly. 1789.

THE principal subjects on which the bishop addresses his clergy, are, Confirmation, the Lord's Supper, Family Prayer, and Visiting the Sick. The volume is, in every respect, worthy of its pious author, and possesses the distinguishing traits of his other writings. Many there are, we know, who would affirm, that it abounds with folly and superstition; but it was not written for them. The venerable father of his little flock, wrote not for the fastidious critic, nor the philosophic infidel. He who turns over his sacred pages with any other view than that of improvement, administered in his way, and under the various sanctions which he thought divine, will most assuredly be disappointed, and perhaps disgusted. Let us be permitted to reverence the holy spirit that animates his sentiments, without subscribing implicitly to all his discipline, forms, and tenets.

ART.

ART. XXXIII. *Wisdom's Dictates: or, a Collection of Maxims and Observations concerning divine and spiritual Truths; and that Process of Regeneration, or Renewal of Life from the Lord, which only is truly saving. Extracted from the Works of various spiritual Writers, and particularly from those of Emanuel Swedenborg.* 8vo. 204 p. Price 1s. 6d. Chalklen. 1789.

THE disciples of Baron Swedenborg having determined that the best means of propagating the doctrines of the New Jerusalem church will be by publications from the press, we are likely to have our patience frequently exercised by attending to long communications from the spiritual world. Well, we must read, though it be often with weary and distracted attention.

The present work contains nine hundred and eleven dictates of wisdom, doctrines, tenets, maxims, articles of faith, or whatever else you please to call them, for those who *are*, or *may be* prepared to receive them.

ART. XXXIV. *The Wisdom of Angels concerning Divine Love, and Divine Wisdom.* Translated from the original Latin of Baron Swedenborg. 8vo. 461 p. Price 6s. in boards. Chalklen.

MORE news from the spiritual world! If this be not angelic wisdom, it is something so wholly beyond the comprehension of our weak intellects, that it must needs relate to beings of a very different order. But our business is analysis: yet, gentle reader, what can we do, when the different chapters, or sections, are 432 in number, and the table of contents occupies 22 pages! The whole volume is divided into five parts. We will give the contents of Part II.

1. That the divine love and the divine wisdom appear in the spiritual world as a sun.—2. That from the sun, which exists from the divine love and the divine wisdom, proceedeth heat and light.—3. That that sun is not God, but that it is an emanation from the divine love and the divine wisdom of God-man: In like manner the heat and light from that sun.—4. That spiritual heat and spiritual light in proceeding from the Lord as a sun make one, as his divine love and his divine wisdom make one.—5. That the sun of the spiritual world appears in a middle altitude, distant from the angels, as the sun of the natural world from men.—6. That the distance between the sun and the angels in the spiritual world is an appearance according to the reception of the divine love and the divine wisdom by them.—7. That the angels are in the Lord and the Lord in them; and forasmuch as the angels are recipients, that the Lord alone is heaven.—8. That in the spiritual world the east is where the Lord appears as a sun, and that the other quarters are determined thereby.—9. That the quarters in the spiritual world are not from the Lord as a sun,

sun, but that they are from the angels according to reception.—10. That the angels constantly turn their faces to the Lord as the sun, and so have the south to the right, the north to the left, and the west behind.—11. That all the interiors as well of the minds as of the bodies of angels are turned to the Lord as a sun.—12. That every spirit, of whatsoever quality, in like manner turns himself to his ruling love.—13. That the divine love and the divine wisdom, which proceed from the Lord as a sun, and cause heat and light in heaven, is the proceeding divine, which is the holy Spirit.—14. That the Lord created the universe and all things in it, by means of the sun, which is the first proceeding of the divine love and the divine wisdom.—15. That the sun of the natural world is pure fire, and therefore dead, and that nature, forasmuch as it derives it's origin from that sun, is dead.—16. That without two suns, the one living, and the other dead, there can be no creation.—17. That the end of creation exists in it's ultimates, which is, that all things may return to the creator, and that there may be conjunction.' F.

ART. XXXV. *Of an Oath. A short Account of the Nature and Obligation of an Oath, and the dreadful Consequences of Perjury in this World, and in that which is to come.* By the Rev. D. G. 12mo. 13 p. Price 2d. Clarke. 1789.

A SENSIBLE account of the nature of an oath, intended to rouse and instruct the lower class of people.

This appears to be one of the little publications intended for Sunday schools, and might be distributed among the scholars, at a small expence. M.

ART. XXXVI. *Essays on several religious Subjects, chiefly tending to illustrate the Scripture Doctrine of the Influence of the Holy Spirit.* By Joseph Milner, M. A. Master of the Grammar-School of Kingston upon Hull. 12mo. 175 p. Price 2s. sewed. York, Ward and Peacock. London, C. Dilly. 1789.

THE following extract from the preface will properly explain the object of Mr. M.'s publication.

'The two first essays were written before the author knew any thing of the notice which Mr. Ludlam has been pleased to take of him in the last of his theological essays, concerning the influence of the Holy Spirit. They seem to be no improper introduction to the tracts which bear a more immediate reference to the publications of that gentleman. There are many who scarce know at all, what are the sentiments of those whom the world is pleased to call enthusiasts. The first essay is calculated for their information; and if the second in any measure guard the reader against the decisions of a very partial tribunal, he will be prepared for the perusal of the following essays, which are all occasioned by Mr. Ludlam's theological pieces.'

The volume contains nine essays. 1. On the character of methodism; in which the distinguishing doctrines of that popular sect are reduced to 1. The necessity of divine light, inspiration

spiration or illumination, in order to understand, to relish, and to practise true christianity. 2. Original sin. 3. Justification by faith in the merits of Christ; and 4. Spiritual renovation. Essay II. contains some heavy complaints of invective and ignorance against the Monthly and Critical Reviewers. III. On the scripture doctrine of atonement and justification. IV. Scriptural proof of the influence of the Holy Spirit on the understanding. V. On the nature of the Spirit's influence on the understanding. VI. On enthusiasm. VII. The trial of prophets. VIII. On the doctrines of the church of England. IX. Remarks on the history of religion.

We cannot conclude this article without remarking, that methodism will find in Mr. Milner one of her ablest advocates; and that however we may occasionally differ from him in matters of opinion, we cheerfully allow him the merit of a liberal and intelligent writer. F.

ART. XXXVII. *The Conduct of the present Parliament considered, previous to its Dissolution.* 8vo. 75p. Price 2s. Ridgway. 1789.

THIS is a very able pamphlet on the side of opposition. With much solidity of remark, and keenness of irony, the ingenious writer pursues the conduct of the present administration and parliament through the different mazes of the scrutiny, the India-bill, the commutation-act, the Irish propositions, the shop-tax, the commercial-treaty, the India impeachments, the declaratory and regency bills. On many of these topics we still differ from our author; but we must confess that he is always specious, if not always convincing. Of the commutation tax we never approved; but we have never seen its mischievous tendency so completely exposed as in the pamphlet which is now before us, and we think the remarks upon that subject highly deserving the attention of the public, and even of the ministry themselves.

The professed object of the commutation-act was to put an end to smuggling. The minister complained that the evil was now risen to such an alarming height, as to threaten the total destruction of the revenue arising from tea. He proposed therefore to take so much from the duties upon that article as would defeat the smuggler, and lay it upon windows. The duties upon tea produced 900,000l. per ann. he reduced them to what he calculated would give 200,000l. and proposed to draw the remaining 700,000l. from an additional tax upon windows.

The first light in which the commutation-act strikes us, is that of a bargain between the state and the individual: "if you will pay me for windows, you shall not pay me for tea." And in the light of a bargain it was a fraud. The subject was not obliged to drink tea, but he was obliged to have windows. An optional thing was changed for a compulsory one. A tax upon a luxury which none need have,
was

was exchanged for a tax upon a necessary, which all must have. Was this a fair commutation *? The salt-tax in France has often been quoted as tyrannical, because the subject is compelled to pay the duty, whether he consume the commodity or not. But mild indeed is the spirit of the French, compared with that of the English tax. Few can dispense with salt, but many with tea; when all therefore pay for the latter, many more must suffer injustice.

* Considered then as a bargain, the commutation-tax was a fraud; considered as a duty, it militated against every principle of taxation. The first maxim in finance is, *that every individual should contribute to the expences of government according to his ability*, and his ability depends upon his property. Property ought then to regulate taxation, and it is the only criterion by which we can determine the mildness or severity, the equity or partiality of any tax †. The principle however was here reversed. The tax was transferred from a luxury to a necessary; from the rich to the poor; from those who could best, to those who could least contribute to the expences of government.

† Another maxim in taxation is, *never to transfer a duty from articles of general consumption to the fixed property of the country*, because the duty so transferred will always be oppressive, and before it can be equivalent, must be ruinous. The malt-tax, for instance, produces as much as an additional tax of nine shillings in the pound upon land would do. The malt-tax however is hardly felt, and an addition of nine shillings in the pound upon land, would operate as an intolerable burthen. But the window duty itself is the best illustration of the principle. So great has been the severity of that tax, and such the efforts to evade it, that there is a deficiency of more than one million upon its produce. The tea duty has given 300,000l. more than was expected, and yet the joint fund of tea and windows, or the whole revenue under the commutation-act, is 700,000l. in arrears.

† Nor was the oppression which the tax occasioned, the sole evil which flowed from it. By the general use of tea, the consumption of malt was materially injured, and the consumption of malt is an object of the first importance to this kingdom. When we reflect upon the number of taxes which it pays, and the beneficial consequences which it produces among the people, we must acknowledge it to be the principal branch of our finance, and the prosperity of its trade to be the political health of the country.

* But the most serious objection against the Commutation-act was the consequences which ensued in India. Tea was purchased with silver, and the trade was ruinous. It employed no manufacturers in this country, which it would have done, had we purchased that article with our own commodities. Ruinous however as it was, when once begun, it was necessarily extended. To disable the smuggler from

* In consequence of it, many farmers who had never tasted tea, were now obliged to pay for their windows.

† Doctor Smith lays down this doctrine in his *Wealth of Nations*, and it is remarkable, that he gives *windows* as an instance how a tax may be oppressive. "A house," says he, "of ten pounds rent in a country town, may frequently have more windows than a house of five hundred pounds rent in London."

underselling the legal trader, the prices were originally reduced, and to continue them low, it was necessary to maintain such a constant supply of tea in the kingdom, as to prevent them from being advanced by speculation among the dealers. For this purpose, ministers proposed that the India Company should employ a great capital, and fit out a considerable number of ships annually, in order to import the necessary quantity of tea. When the duties however were taken off here, the fine teas (for they occasioned all the mischief) became as cheap in England, as the coarse had been formerly: they were equally demanded, and equally to be purchased, but they cost double or treble the price in China, double or treble the quantity of silver was necessary to buy them, and consequently the balance of trade was turned two or three times more against England. The plan was so ruinous that it could not be executed, and ministers themselves abandoned the attempt. For the two last years, they have sent out an inferior number of ships. Impossible, however, as the complete execution of the plan was, it could be pursued far enough to do much mischief, and much mischief has been done.

‘ But is smuggling the evil, to remedy which such exertions have been made, totally destroyed ?

‘ If the duties had been lowered on the coarse teas only, the end would have been answered, because it was in these kinds that the smuggler chiefly dealt. And if they had been lowered in a less degree, no bad consequences could have followed in India. They would have been demanded less, and could have been supplied easily, as they cost little in China. The fine would have hardly been demanded at all. But the duties were thrown off all indiscriminately, all are demanded indiscriminately, all must be purchased indiscriminately, and by reason of the fine which cost so much, the quantities of all will fail indiscriminately. As the supply fails, the prices will rise; they have already risen far above the commuting ones, and smuggling has only been prevented hitherto, because the Company, at the passing of the act, bought up all the spare tea imported into Europe, to answer the immediate demand. But this security will soon vanish. Foreign nations * will be again supplied, the Company will import for themselves, and smuggling will prevail as formerly.

‘ The commutation-act, then, was a measure treacherous, cruel, ruinous, and inefficient. Treacherous, because it made a fraudulent exchange; cruel, because it oppressed the poor; ruinous, because it drained the wealth of the nation; and inefficient, because it missed its object.’

B.

ART. *XXXVII. *An Essay on Sensibility. A Poem. In six Parts.*
8vo. 183 p. Price 4s. sewed. G. Nicol. 1789.

THE author holds the balance between sensibility and indifference; makes a just estimate of their respective claims to preference; and having properly observed, that if the former affects us too frequently with pain, and with pain in the

* The Portuguese, Danes, and Swedes, import seven and a half per cent. cheaper than we do.

extreme

extreme, it is because she is not held sufficiently under the controul of reason, and decides in her favour.

There is more good sense in the book than good poetry, though of good poetry also it is not entirely destitute. It bears many marks of a slovenly haste; for, to no other cause can we ascribe the many blemishes with which it is deformed, the author having occasionally given proof of ability. Some of his lines are forcible and well finished; others have a tedious drawl; and his chief fault is the want of compression. We recommend to him to study a classical neatness of versification, without which, though he may be a sensible poet, he will never be an agreeable one. He tells us in his preface that he disclosed his literary secret to no friend before he published it. Had he disclosed it to a judicious friend, it would have appeared with more advantage. We then should not have seen it disfigured with such barbarisms, as—*Can't—Who're—Thou'dst—Let's try—May'nt—*&c. nor with a line beginning thus—*Such late their fate* (p. 38), nor with such a lazy couplet as this, (p. 41).

' Wide yawns the earth; they're swallow'd in its womb,
And find, before they have expired, a tomb.'

In the last line of the following couplet we discern something very like that figure of Hibernian rhetoric, called a bull, (p. 116).

' And gradually disclose th' expected shore
On which we *absents clasp*, and part with them no more.'

By *genial ply*, (p. 137), we should never understand a warm garment, had we not the context for our interpreter; and we are heartily sorry that the necessity of rhyme should have suggested to the author another necessity not properly mentioned perhaps in a poem on the Delicacies of Sensibility, as in the ensuing couplet, (p. 138).

' He snuffs his taper equally by rule,
As he puts on his wig, or *goes to stool*.'

In page 142, we find a *foe quash'd*. We thought the term confined to the bar, where long usage has made it almost tolerable, and in poetry we did not expect it. Let indictments be *quash'd*; and we have no objection to the *quashing* of *snails*, *slugs*, and *rotten eggs*, but for Sensibility's sake let us not *quash* our enemies.

We give the following piece of landscape-painting, as a specimen of the author's descriptive powers, marking only those words with Italicks which to us appeared ill-chosen, and to which a little care might easily have substituted better, (see p. 13 and 14).

' Oh! who will bear him to th' imperial height,
 Whence the wide prospect burst *upon* his sight?
 Shrub-tangled cliffs, and pendent rocks surround,
 Down which the torrent foams with dashing sound.
 Beneath, the river glides with placid pace,
 And, circling, clasps the hill in its embrace :
 Its flowery banks unnumber'd herds disclose,
 Fed with the verdure which its stream bestows.
 The eye, set free, runs o'er the vast *champaign*,
 Where golden plenty undulates *again*,
 Sees the trim feat, at intervals, combine
 Its groves, its lawns, and all its fair design ;
 And, farther on, the starting tower reveal
 The village which embow'ring shades conceal ;
 Till it, at last, the distant ocean hail,
 And in th' horizon spy the glistening fail.
 On yonder side a fullen heath extends,
 Till in th' abrupt and woody ridge it ends ;
 Where, sudden, the ambitious summits rise,
 And mountains pil'd on mountains scale the skies,
 Upon whose tops eternal winter stays,
 Reflecting from his snows the solar blaze !
 Grandeur and beauty all his soul subdue,
 While contrast heightens the *bewitching* view.
 Here would he gladly wait th' expiring day,
 And 'midst unnumber'd charms of vision stray !

The following comparison of a tumid character, which the author names Pomposo, to a Turkey-cock, has merit. The figure of the feather'd hero is well delineated in the four first lines of the passage. The two last after—*Wave your hand*—might have been much heightened, (p. 75).

' The turkey thus, bird cowardly and vain,
 Spreads, to spectator's view, his tawdry train,
 Invests his pate with mingling blue and red,
 And drops his pendent snout to raise your dread.
 But wave your hand, the creature takes to flight,
 All his vain terrors vanish from the fight.'

We subjoin to these an extract in which the author gives an instance, not very uncommon, of female inconstancy. The lines are among the best in the book. The simile with which they terminate appeared to us to have novelty at least to recommend it, but it does not coincide exactly with the subject. The happy husband finds, surely, no resemblance of his own good fortune in the case of a naval conqueror blown into the air, together with his new-made prisoners, (p. 106—7—8).

' But view Eugenio's image, and declare
 If love with happiness could ever pair.
 Long did Eugenio for Maria burn ;
 Eugenio's vows Maria long return.

At last they hop'd to see the day *come round*
 Which fix'd their union, and their wishes crown'd.
 Eugenio, *for a while*, was forced away,
 Long was his pain, but short should be his stay.
 Vows of unshaken constancy they swore,
 Vows she repeated, nor remembered more.
 Lucullus came, and told the am'rous tale,
 A few more hundreds turn'd the wavering scale.
 Vows, sighs, and tears—Eugenio—all forgot—
 She struck the bargain, and she tied the knot—
 Thou fond, confiding youth! art left to share
 The bitterest pangs of anguish and despair;
 Each dear illusion of th' enamour'd soul,
 Each joy, each hope extinguish'd at the goal,
 Sharpen thy sorrows, aggravate thy doom,
 And bid thee look for refuge in the tomb!

' Thus when the doubtful battle long has rag'd
 Between two hostile vessels close engag'd,
 Fixt victory, at last, decides the fight,
 And the struck ensign owns superior might;
 The thund'ring cannons end their wond'rous roar,
 The carnage ceases, and the combat's o'er;
 Keen shouts of triumph echo o'er the deep,
 While mournful silence the surrender'd keep.
 The prize secur'd, the captives fix'd in chains,
 Among the victors festive pleasure reigns;
 Sudden a shriek proclaims th' alarm of fire!
 With horror struck they see the flames aspire;
 Next moment views the dire explosion blend
 Victors and vanquish'd in one dreadful end.
 So by assur'd success oft love beguiles,
 And meditates destruction when he smiles.

G. G.

ART. XXXVIII. *Crouch-Hill. A Descriptive Poem. With some Account of the Sieges of Banbury Castle, in the Reign of Charles the First, &c.* 8vo. p. 34. pr. 1s. Banbury, Busher. London, Robinsons, 1789.

NOT even a dismal account of a swain, who loved in vain, left his country, and died, can render this sing-song interesting. A specimen will be a sufficient character.—Speaking of a river:

' Here the glad school-boys unrestrained resort,
 Their tasks performed, t'indulge in youthful sport.
 They strip; their cumb'rous garments thrown aside,
 Headlong they plunge beneath the whelming tide.
 A flock of sheep, thus wanton, unconfined,
 Or followed by the yelping cur behind,
 Run to the river's brink, there panting stand,
 Till one pushed on by others from the land,
 Leaps in the stream; quick all the rest pursue,
 The fleece absorbs the waves, they sink from view.
 But soon the youths arise, stretch every limb,
 And o'er the deep smooth gliding lightly skim;

A a 4

Their

Their motions by the waters scarce concealed,
 Part hid beneath, and part above revealed.
 Then dash the waves about in gamesome play,
 And shroud their comrades in the misty spray;
 Then o'er the level plain again they shoot,
 Or dive below, t' elude the keen pursuit!

T.

ART. XXXIX. *The Sword of Peace; or a Voyage of Love; a Comedy, in five Acts, first performed at the Theatre Royal in the Hay Market, on Saturday, Aug. 9th, 1788.* 8vo. p. 64. pr. 1s. 6d. Debrett, 1789.

'I wish,' says the authoress, in the preface, 'to conceal myself from the censure of individuals, the flattery of sycophants, and the partiality of weak friends.'—'Few, indeed, are capable of *speaking truth amiably!*' We cannot be so ungallant as not to wish to *speaking truth amiably* to a lady, and yet she perhaps will not think so, when we inform her that *sentiment* is no part of legitimate comedy, and that a just representation of human life and manners, as they are, (not as they ought to be) is the true province of comedy. The characters of this piece are not natural; the incidents arise without probability, and the language is frequently weak and even vulgar. The frequent repetition of *damme*, and *darned*, argue that poverty of invention which cursing and swearing supply in common life. The fable, however, is strictly moral, and we find nothing offensive to chastity.

ART. XL. *The Benevolent Planters; a dramatic Piece; as performed at the Theatre Royal, Haymarket.* Written by Thomas Bellamy. 8vo. p. 14. pr. 1s. Debrett, 1789.

A SENTIMENTAL trifle, apparently written to serve a performer on his benefit,—but no object for criticism.

ART. XLI. *The Tour to York; a circumstantial Account of his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales's Visit to that City; with a Description and Engravings of the Gold Box presented to his Royal Highness by the Corporation thereof, Anno Dom. 1789. To which is subjoined, a Sketch of the superb Entertainment given at Wentworth-house; and a poetical Address to the Royal Brothers, (his Royal Highness George, Prince of Wales, and his Royal Highness Frederic, Duke of York).* 4to. p. 52. York, Wilson and Co. London, Robinsons, 1789.

THIS Tour is principally taken from the newspapers. The engravings of the gold box do credit to the artist. We cannot say so much of the poetical address; *exempli gratia.*

• Bleft

* Blest be the guardian angel's *trembling* hand
 That turn'd aside, by Heaven's divine command,
 The *whizzing* ball, charg'd with thy death, O YORK!
 By sanguinary Lenox!—murd'rous work! C. C.

ART. XLII. *The Man of Benevolence.* 12mo. p. 200. pr.
 2s. 6d. sewed. Hughs and Walsh, 1789.

THE author informs us in the preface, that he wishes to do good, and aims at furnishing young people with a useful novel. We give him credit for a laudable intention, and think we trace it throughout his little production; yet, we are sorry to add, that we cannot warmly recommend it to our youthful readers, because many of the prevailing faults of novels still stare us full in the face; wonderful adventures, and strange turns of fortune, are related in affected language, and Sterne imitated with little humour and less judgment. In short, the whole is very unnatural, and strays too far from probability to create the slightest interest.

ART. XLIII. *Scymour Castle, or the History of Julia and Cecilia; an entertaining and interesting Novel. In two Volumes.* 12mo. pr. 5s. sewed. Symonds, 1789.

THIS frivolous history of misses and lords, ball dresses and violent emotions, so far from being either entertaining or interesting, is one of the most stupid novels we have ever impatiently read. Pray Miss, write no more! M.

ART. XLIV. *Facts relating to the Reverend Dr. White's Bampton Lectures.* By R. B. Gabriel, D.D. late Fellow of Worcester College, Oxford. 8vo. 88 pages. Price 1s. 6d. Bell. 1789.

THE publishing of private letters is now become so common, that no obligations of private friendship are sufficient to protect a man of any eminence, from the danger of being, in some way, exposed by this iniquitous practice. We cannot too strongly condemn this breach of trust, the consequences of which must be, that those who are most capable of giving information and pleasure by their letters, will be afraid to write to their acquaintance, in the free and unconstrained manner of private correspondence.

The facts contained in this pamphlet, consist of six letters from Dr. White to the late Mr. Badcock, respecting the assistance which he received from him in the composition of the Bampton lectures, which Dr. W. preached at Oxford in 1784. These letters having fallen into Dr. Gabriel's hands after Mr. B.'s decease, he, in consequence of a disagreement taking place between him and Dr. W. spread the report in the University,
 that

that Mr. B. was author of a considerable part of the lectures published under Dr. W.'s name. The story thus getting abroad, excited the attention of the public; and as is the fate of all stories, was variously told, and the part Mr. B. took, was exaggerated by some to nearly the composition of the whole, and extenuated by others to merely revising or correcting. The newspapers, now too generally prostituted to the purposes of private scandal, abounded with abuse and recrimination from the friends of both parties; and afforded Dr. G. an ostensible motive for bringing forward this publication, to evince the truth of what he had before advanced in conversation, respecting Dr. W.'s obligations to Mr. B.

The substance of the facts which Dr. G. has produced is as follows: in the first of these letters, (dated November 27, 1783) Dr. W. acquaints Mr. B. that his friendly offers of literary assistance, have relieved his mind from a great deal of anxiety; and offers him a draft of 50*l.* and whatever can be produced by the sale of the copy, which he thinks may be 50 or 100*l.* The parts he wishes Mr. B. to undertake are lectures 1, 7, and 8: of the 7th he gives a prospectus, and promises a large skeleton some time afterwards; requests profound secrecy as to their correspondence.—Next letter acknowledges the receipt of Mr. B.'s introduction to lecture 1. that it is extremely ingenious, and incomparably excellent—did not think it possible for his remarks to have been introduced with such perfect propriety; and promises soon to send the detail of his ideas on every part of his plan. In the third letter he informs Mr. B. of having sent him the first part of Lecture 3, to the quotation "be it far from thee, Lord; this shall not happen unto thee," (vide p. 117, last edition,) and requests him to undertake the subject from that place; points out the heads to be enlarged upon; and promises to send the analysis of the five last lectures. The next letter was written after the sermons had been preached, and acknowledges that Mr. B.'s most valuable communications, during the course of these lectures, contributed very greatly to give them the celebrity they possess—consults him as to the mode of publication, as he was solely concerned in that part of the business. In the following letter Dr. W. informs Mr. B. that the sermons were printing, that his notes on the Mahometan history would be copious, but he wanted some remarks on the Christian part, and requests him to send every thing he could by way of annotation.—The last letter was written to excuse the not making another remittance—states that 'the book sells most rapidly, and meets here (at Oxford) with universal approbation. It is the opinion of every one, that it must come to a second edition this winter. Permit me again to return you my most grateful acknowledgments

ledgements for the very friendly and essential services you have done me on this occasion: without you the work could not have been produced, and all my prospects must have been for ever closed.'

This is the substance of the evidence brought forward to prove that Mr. B. had a considerable share in writing those sermons; what that share was, the author of the pamphlet has not thought proper to attempt to determine; but leaves it to the public to form what conjectures they please.

'I have never professed to examine, much less to determine whether his (Dr. White's) share was not equal, or even superior to that of Mr. Badcock. All I contend for is, that Mr. Badcock was frequently consulted upon the propriety of such matter, as Dr. White himself furnished; that he was frequently commissioned to employ matter of his own; and that he has written enough to establish his own credit, as a man of great talents, and to justify my assertion of Dr. White's being under *particular obligations* to Mr. Badcock.'

As the Dr. who professes to have had still more knowledge of the subject than what the letters above specified afford, has declined giving any opinion on this point, we shall certainly not attempt it. Lectures 1, 7, and 8 (which Dr. G. observes, may be in the present edition, the 9th) and the latter part of lecture 3, appear from the above extracts, to have been particularly allotted to Mr. B. But of these, Dr. W. furnished in the first letter a prospectus of the 7th, and promised soon to send a large skeleton of it, and of the 1st, he observes in the second letter, that *his remarks* were introduced with perfect propriety.

With regard to the expressions of gratitude in Dr. W.'s letters, Dr. G. seems afraid, that too great an allowance will be made '*for the ardent and exaggerated language of friendship*'; but when it is considered that those in which the celebrity of the work, is principally ascribed to Mr. B. were written in the moment of exultation at the success it obtained, and perhaps of exhilarity; those who are acquainted with the professor, will not lay much stress upon the strong terms he employed to express his obligations.

In answer to some suggestions which have been made respecting Mr. B.'s capability of writing those lectures, the author enters into a comparative view of the respective abilities shewn by him and Dr. W. in their preceding publications*; the result of which, as may be supposed, is in favour of Mr. B. The author however allows that Mr. B.'s avowed writings are inferior to the Bampton lectures; but that as Dr. W.'s printed sermon is also below them, he concludes it as likely for him

* In this comparison no mention is made of the Syriac version of the gospels, translated by Dr. W. into Latin; the elegance of which has been much celebrated both at home and abroad.

to have exceeded himself in this instance as Dr. W.—We cannot but remark, that this argument would have appeared to us of no force, if more substantial evidence had not been produced. For it is surely much more probable that Dr. W. whose fame, whose future prospects depended on the success of the work, should exert his utmost endeavours, should strain every nerve to render it as perfect as possible, and thence rise superior to his former productions, than that Mr. B. should, who could only be actuated by the expectations of a pecuniary reward, the part he took being by agreement to be kept a profound secret. The inequalities of composition and style in the sermons, sufficiently evince the presence of an auxiliary hand, and one considerably inferior to the author of the other parts. By the testimony of the letters above quoted, the second lecture, and the first part of the third, are the composition of Dr. White; let these be compared with the latter part of the third and the seventh lecture, which are specifically stated to be written by Mr. B. and the difference of style alone will be found a sufficient answer to every thing Dr. G. has advanced on this head*. Without entering into any discussion of what Mr. B. whose abilities we are ready to acknowledge, was able to write, or without wishing to raise the fame of a living author, at the expence of the deceased, the inferiority apparent in those parts which are specifically pointed out, and in others, which, from the similarity of style, it is easy to discover, were written by Mr. B. is such as can scarcely be allowed to diminish Dr. W.'s title to the fame and celebrity which have attended the composition of those lectures. The falling off in the 117th page, from whence Dr. W. requested Mr. B. to undertake the subject of the third lecture, is so obvious, that every reader of discernment must be struck with it; the feebleness of expression, a few instances excepted, in the succeeding pages, is such as leaves no room for doubt, that the general merit of the work cannot be ascribed to that writer. In stating thus much, we do not mean to offer an unqualified defence of Dr. W. we presume his indolence prevailed over his exertion, and that with solicitous eagerness he accepted that proffered assistance which rendered the work unequal, and subjected himself to the insults of those who envied his success.

We should now take our leave of this extraordinary attack on the reputation of an author, the novelty of which will excuse the length to which we have extended this article: but

* From examining the Lectures by this criterion, we might perhaps be enabled nearly to ascertain the parts written by Dr. W. and Mr. B. but in some instances the difference is not so marked as in others. In some places also the work of a third hand is apparent, as in the fifth sermon, the style of which seems to correspond with that of Dr. P.

there are some circumstances respecting a note of hand, related in this pamphlet, which demand our further notice, as these gave rise to its publication. After Mr. B.'s decease, the following note was found in his possession :

• Wadham College, Oxford, Aug. 7, 1786*.

• £. 500.

• I promise to pay to the Rev. Mr. Samuel Badcock, of South Molton, Devon, the sum of five hundred pounds, at or before the times hereafter specified, viz. fifty pounds in the present month, one hundred pounds in the next Oxford Lent term, and three hundred and fifty in July or August, 1787.

• Witness my hand,

• JOSEPH WHITE.

On Dr. Gabriel's mentioning this note 7th June, 1788, to Dr. W. he refused to pay it, alledging, that it was given, in consequence of Mr. B.'s having agreed to assist him in the composition of a history of Egypt, the plan of which had been formed, but which had not been executed ; and that as Mr. B. had not furnished the expected assistance, he did not think himself bound to pay the note, in point of honour, and as it was not *payable to order*, he could not be compelled by law. Dr. G. still contending, that in his opinion it was given for services received in the Bampton lectures, Dr. W. said he could shew him some written documents, from which it would appear to him that the note was given really and solely for the history. It was then agreed, that Dr. G. should go down to South Molton, and in his way thither, receive those documents, to shew them to Miss Badcock, and to make the best bargain he could for both parties. In the course of the following week, Dr. W. went to Bath, and not meeting with Dr. G. there, wrote a letter to be left for him at Exeter, in which he stated, that having some business at Bristol, he had come thither solely to pay a visit to Dr. G. That he wished to have shewn him some papers in the hand-writing of a deceased friend, which, he thought would have cleared up all difficulties with regard to the note. If a personal interview was necessary, he was ready to meet Miss B. (with the proper documents) either at Bath or Exeter, whenever she pleased in July. If she referred the matter to Dr. G. as a common friend, perhaps he might have the pleasure of meeting him at Oxford during the week of commemoration. That he left every thing to his discretion, and should acquiesce in every thing he might think proper to do on the occasion.

Whether Dr. W. was actuated by, for him, an extraordinary degree of caution, and did not chuse to trust those documents

* This is upwards of two years after the Bampton Lectures were preached.

out of his hands; or whether he thought the evidence they afforded not sufficiently clear without an explanation, or producing collateral circumstances, his not sending them to Exeter with the letter, gave occasion to Dr. G. to draw the following conclusion: '*As they came not, I suspected that they had no existence.*' According to this idea, he agreed, in consequence of the latitude given him by the latter part of the letter, that the whole money should be paid. Dr. W. on meeting with him at Oxford, was dissatisfied with this conduct, and accused him of *being in league with Miss B. to pick his pocket.* Incensed at this charge, Dr. G. threatened, if he persisted in it, to lay his whole conduct before the University, and gave him till the next morning to consider of it; and as Dr. W. then neither retracted the charge, or apologized for the affront, he *therefore* mentioned the matter among his friends at Oxford; they told it to others; and the story, of course, soon became public.

Such were the causes which, according to Dr. Gabriel's account, gave rise to the propagation of the report respecting Mr. B.'s concern in the Bampton lectures. How far they justify or extenuate his conduct, we shall leave to the feelings of our readers to determine. At this latter interview, Dr. G. informs us, that he looked over the professor's papers, but the only one that he found which could possibly refer to the note in Mr. B.'s hand-writing, was as follows, dated about a month after the date of the note.

' South-Molton, Sept. 2, 1786,

' * * * * You have required secrecy as to a memorandum inclosed in a former letter; yet I must say, that it will never be made use of by me, or by any one for me, living or dead. It shall be returned at demand; and therefore let it never give you one moment's pain.'

On this extract, Dr. G. observes:

' Whether the word memorandum did, or did not mean the same as note, can be known only to the parties themselves; but I have *since* that interview, found among Mr. B.'s papers, a letter from Dr. W. in which the same memorandum (as I suppose) is referred to, and from which it plainly appears, that some negotiation was passing between him and Mr. B. respecting the Egyptian history.'

On the whole of this transaction, however, Dr. G. gives us his *private opinion*.

' Upon examining some papers which have been lent to me, *since our interview at Oxford*, I am inclined to believe, that the note was intended partly as a reward for services done, and partly as an encouragement to future services in the history of Egypt.'

But that Dr. W.'s character should not appear in any more favourable light from this concession, Dr. G. insinuates, that part of the work on the Egyptian history had been done by Mr. B. 'I only know, that the Doctor has displayed specimens of some brilliant passages, in the hearing of several of *his acquaintance.* But I presume not to determine by whom they

they were written.' Such are the worthy labours of this divine, who is *not actuated by motives of ill-will*. He first endeavours to deprive a man of the reputation he has already acquired, and next insinuates prejudices against the authenticity of what he may hereafter produce !!

After all this altercation, it is no small matter of surprize, that Dr. W. should have agreed to pay the full note; and has, as we are informed, actually paid the greatest part. There is a mystery pervades the whole of this transaction, which, perhaps, he alone can develope. In every way that we can consider the subject, we are opposed by improbabilities. It is by no means probable, that Dr. W. should give 500l. for the assistance received in the Bampton lectures; and that two years afterwards, previous to which, as appears from his letters, some remittances had been made! Nor can it be reconciled with the common order of money concerns, that so large a sum should be given for work to be done hereafter; and which never was done.

But these money transactions are of little consequence to the public. Individual curiosity may be amused with prying into, and private malignity gratified with scrutinizing and exaggerating the failings and frailties of an eminent character; but the world in general will be little interested, whether he gives 500l. to one man, or 5000l. to another. To them he is only accountable for the suppression of those abilities through indolence, which were formed to enlighten, and entertain mankind.

ART. XLV. *A Letter to R. B. Gabriel, D. D. in Answer to Facts relating to the Rev. Dr. White's Bampton Lectures.* 50 p. Price 1s. 6d. Gardner. 1789.

THIS is either the production of some ill-judging, ill-informed, well-meaning friend, or of some hackney writer, instigated by the avidity with which the Facts have been purchased by the public. It consists principally of recrimination on the character of Dr. Gabriel, which, however he may merit, and he has certainly given some fair openings in his pamphlet for censure, cannot be of any service to the cause of Dr. White. The degradation of his adversary cannot add to his fame, or encrease his estimation with the public. We shall however give an extract relative to the authenticity of Dr. Gabriel's pamphlet, of which our readers will judge for themselves.

'He who is acquainted with the manner in which your letters are in general couched, will easily recollect, if the idea did not strike him before, that the same insipidity, the same want of animation and of vigour, still are conspicuous in the *facts*; and that the more brilliant parts, few as they are, proceed from the pen of a scholar who might have been better employed, and whose avocations, it is to be hoped, are of a more honourable nature than to swell the tide of malevolence, or encrease the rapidity of envy and mean ambition.'

A. D.

ART. XLVI. *The Can of Flip, the celebrated Sea Song, sung with universal Applause at the Lyceum, &c.* Composed by Mr. Moulds. Goulding.

IN this production, though we do not mean to say that it is destitute of merit, we do not discover any striking marks either of melody or of character. Spirit, the chief ingredient in compositions of this nature, is greatly wanting, and the bass, to say the best of it, is but indifferently constructed.

ART. XLVII. *Love and Time.* Written by G. S. Carey, and set to Music by Miss J. T. More. Goulding.

THIS little song is set in E flat $\frac{3}{4}$, *allegro con spirito*. In its air we do not trace any thing novel or attractive. Yet it allows us to say that it is smooth and natural, and to hope that in future productions Miss Moore will be found an improving composer.

ART. XLVIII. *The Indian's Complaint in Captivity.* Composed by Mr. W. Parke. The Words by Peter Pindar, Esq. Price 1s. Goulding.

THIS air, the beauties of which are greatly creditable to Mr. Parke, is printed with accompaniments for the *Obse o Violino*, and the Piano Forte, and derives from them considerable addition to its effect. The melody is in itself sweetly plaintive and highly characteristic, while the bass and general construction of the composition rank it high amongst the productions of science as well as of taste.

ART. XLIX. *'Twas in the solemn Midnight Hour,' or Edwin's Ghost, a favourite Song, set to Music with Accompaniments.* By John Moulds. Price 1s. Goulding.

THIS pathetic ballad Mr. Moulds has set in a style very interesting. The melody is both novel and agreeable, and while it forcibly conveys the sense of the words, greatly attracts the ear; in a word, the music does him much credit, and allows us to say, that he is a very improving composer.

TO OUR READERS.

We beg leave to rectify a strange blunder, which was made in our Review of Dr. Campbell's *Translation of the Gospels*. We there suppose, that he renders *βίβλος γενεαίως* *Pedigree*. How we came to commit this mistake, we cannot ourselves conceive: but so it is; and we take the very first opportunity (after discovering our error) to acknowledge it. The word which the Dr. uses is *Lineage*; and, consequently, our criticism is unjust; although we are still of opinion, that *Genealogy* would have been a better term.

LITERARY

LITERARY INTELLIGENCE. HISTORY OF ACADEMIES.

ART. I. ROYAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES AT SIENNA.

March 12. Quartzose and volcanic stones, exposed to natural mephitic exhalations, in places where sulphureous substances abound, undergo a change, which gives them an appearance of argillaceous earth, and are covered with an aluminous efflorescence. From these circumstances, and the authority of Baumé, some have thought that an actual conversion of quartzose earth into argillaceous took place. Woulfe and Bergman deny this, and discover inaccuracies in the experiments brought by Baumé to confirm his opinion. To have this point decided the academy has twice proposed the following question: *It is required to ascertain whether the argillaceous appearance assumed by quartzose stones, exposed to natural mephitic exhalations, in places where sulphureous substances abound, be occasioned by the conversion of a portion of the quartzose earth into argile, by the addition of some substances which those exhalations introduce, or by a change in the external appearance of such quartzose stones simply, their earthy parts remaining still in the same proportion. It is required, that the quantity of argile naturally entering into the composition of those stones be determined, in order to judge, in examining them when altered, whether they contain a much larger proportion of it, and whether the alum produced be owing to the argile they originally contained merely, or partly to argile formed anew by the destruction of a portion of the quartzose earth?* No solution to this problem having been offered, the academy proposes it a third time, with a double prize, 60 crowns (161.). As volcanic products, in similar circumstances, undergo a similar change, an examination of them on the same principles, will be admitted to compete for the prize: The papers must be sent, post-free, to Sig. Paolo Mascagni, perpetual secretary, before the expiration of the year 1790.

ART. II. ROYAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES AND BELLES LETTRES, AT BERLIN.

July 16. At a meeting, at which were present the princess of Orange, sister to the king, the prince royal of Prussia, and almost all the royal family, his excellence Count Hertzberg read an essay on the utility of public academical meetings, and announced the reception of the Prince de Gonzague into the academy. His excellency M. de Wollner read an account of all the embellishments bestowed on the palaces of Berlin and Potsdam, since the elector Fred. William the Great. Counsellor Erman read an interesting paper on the connections between Brandenburg and Holland, and their advantages to those states. M. Achard read an essay on the dephlogisticated air procured from manganese, which he accompanied with some experiments. In the antichamber, M. Quantin exhibited a machine of his invention for ascertaining the strength of materials employed in ship-building: with it he broke an oak plank, eight feet long, and four and a half inches thick, in three minutes, by the application of a force equal in power to 5475 lb. weight.

ART. III. ROYAL AGRICULTURAL SOCIETY AT LAON.

Sept. 5. The subject for the prize of 300l. (12l. 10s.) proposed last year consisted of the following questions. 1. *In pruning vines, what rules ought to be followed as to the number of eyes to be left, with respect to the species of the vine, the quality of the wood that may have been frozen in the winter, and the nature of the soil; and is there any particular method of pruning those, the roots of which have been gnawed by field-mice?* 2. *In what manner are vines to be propagated by layers; how deep in the earth ought the layer to be put down; and what rule is to be followed for withdrawing the vine when it has been frozen in the spring?* 3. *In what soil is grafting vines proper; how, and at what time, is that operation to be performed; and does it not in general injure the quality of the vine?* The prize was adjudged to M. Besfroy, officer in the battalion in garrison at Orleans: the accessit to M. Portier, an ecclesiastic at Beaune in Burgundy; and honourable mention was made of a paper by M. Chevalier, a farmer, at Argenteuil, one of the deputies to the national assembly. The following is the subject for the year 1790. 1. *How many times ought the earth about vines to be dugged up, from the time of laying them down to the vintage?* 2. *What are the most proper times for this operation?* 3. *Should not the fear of frosts in the spring be an inducement to retard the tying up (liage) of the vine?* 4. *What is the best time and manner of taking off the useless buds, shoots, &c. of the vine, in order to avoid the falling off of the young fruit, which that operation improperly performed may occasion?* The prize is 300l. (12l. 10s.) The papers must be sent, written in French or Latin, to the perpetual secretary, M. Cotte, *Pretre de l'Oratoire, Chanoine de l'Eglise de Laon*, before the first of June. It is expected, that the rules laid down be applicable to the vines of Laon in particular.

ART. IV. GEORGIC SOCIETY, OR AGRARIAN SCHOOL OF THE CASTLES OF TRAW.

Count Rados Antonio Micheli Vitturi, being appointed by the Most Excellent Board of Agriculture, to consider of improving the defective state of husbandry in the extensive province of Dalmatia, has instituted this society, which has been approved by the board. It is to consist of twelve theoretical, and twelve practical members, to be inhabitants of the cities of Traw and Spalato, or of the neighbouring country. The object of these members is to examine the defects of the system of agriculture at present pursued in that territory, and to point out their remedies. Those of the former class are to present their essays, reflections, and experiments on the subject, to the society, monthly; which, after being translated into the Illyrian language, will form popular instructions to be read publicly every Sunday. Those of the second class are always to unite practice with theory, and badges of honour will be distributed to the most deserving. The number of honorary members is indeterminate; but each of these is expected to transmit to the society some paper relative to the object of its institution, at least once a year.

ART. V. ROYAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES AND BELLES LETTRES
AT NAPLES.

The memoirs of this academy, from its institution to the year 1787, were published last year in 1 vol. 4to. *Atti delle Reale Accademia delle Scienze, &c.*

The preface, by the secretary M. Napoli Signorelli, gives an account of the proceedings of the members in attempting to investigate various subjects belonging to the four classes into which the academy is divided, and the obstacles it had to encounter from the disagreement of its members. This is followed by solutions of some problems in optics, on the illumination of a circle or opaque sphere, from a given point; by D. N. Fregala. A dissertation on burning-glasses; a description of a new spherical compass, made by G. Anderlini, of Bologna, with its use; and a dissertation on an universal standard, capable of serving for the various pounds used by different nations; by G. Saladini. On the true measure of spirals; by M. Fregala. On the ascent of bodies in the air, by their specific lightness; by M. Saladini. Two memoirs by M. Fregala, and one by D. Annibale Giordano, a youth not yet fifteen, on what Leibnitz calls relative geometry, consisting in placing a given surface between several given lines; explanation of the phenomena produced by a thunder-stroke falling on a vessel; by G. Saverio Poli. A physiological discovery, by M. Cotugno. It is generally imagined, that the sole office of the veins is to return the blood to the heart: but M. C. has observed, from repeated experiments on men and animals, that in the veins of the head, to which he has hitherto confined his researches, the blood moves regularly in two opposite and alternate directions, from the head to the heart, and from the heart to the head. Some new characters discovered in three plants, the cytinus, ceratonia, and stelleria passerina; and a geographico-physical essay on farther Calabria; by M. Angiol Fasano. And a valuable essay on the coins of the two Sicilies, by D. D. Diodati, which concludes the volume.

Nov. Lett. di Firenze.

ART. VI. Gottingen. *Commentationes Societatis Regiæ Scientiarum, &c.* Memoirs of the Royal Society of Sciences at Gottingen, for the Years 1787-8. Vol. 1x. Physical Class. 4to. 192 p. 12 plates. 1789.

The first piece in this collection is an essay *on the living power of the blood*, by Mr. Blumenbach, read at the semi-centennial jubilee of the society. By living power, M. B. understands a quality capable of producing effects not to be explained by the mere physical properties of matter; and the existence of such a quality in the blood he denies: it is not necessary to any effect produced by the blood, and the solids are no otherwise stimulated by the blood than by inanimate matter. The vibratory motion of the blood, which Harvey first demonstrated in the heart, after its ceasing to beat, by dissecting living animals, is not to be attributed to a peculiar quality of the blood, but to the living power of the internal fibres of the heart not yet destroyed: M. B. injected a solution of isinglass into a heart newly opened, and perceived the same appearances. The generation of new vessels from the blood, which J. Hunter considers as an argument of its living power,

proceeds not from the whole mass of blood, but from the plastic lymph only. 2. *Description of some plants of the island of Magellan*, by M. G. Forster. 3. *Some plants of Madeira, St. Jago, Ascension-island, St. Helena, and Fayal*, by the same. 4. *On the combination of zink with iron, and manganese with copper*, by M. Gmelin. To effect the former, M. G. fused black blende with lime, under the idea, that the latter taking the sulphur from that ore, the iron and zink contained in it would fuse together. He also endeavoured to unite them directly in a perforated crucible, covered with powdered glass, and standing over a vessel of water, after the manner in which antimony is melted from its ore: he could not, however, effect their combination by this method. M. G. succeeded in fusing copper with crude manganese and charcoal-powder. The mixed metal was very hard, malleable, and internally of a gold colour. To this is added an account of a salt obtained from an old wall, which we have already noticed. (See our Rev. Vol. IV. p. 375). 5. *On wolfram*, by the same. M. G. obtained some metallic buttons from nitrated calx of wolfram, by means of fixed alkali, with a strong fire, in an iron furnace. The union of this metal with others succeeded but incompletely, and with some not at all. 6. *On the comparative physiology of oviparous and viviparous warm-blooded animals*, by M. Blumenbach. 7. *Letter from prof. Camper to M. Blumenbach*. Prof. C. had considered a young pipa with a tail, in the Gottingen museum, as a deviation from nature; but he has since seen more instances of this in that species of toad. The tadpoles of frogs have gills (*aperturæ bronchiales*), which in the young of the pipa are wanting. 8. *On the co-operation of the lymphatic system in producing and removing diseases*, by M. Wrisberg. 9. *On the plants which yield gamboge*, by J. A. Murray. Prof. M. describes the plant, which produces the genuine gamboge, from the collection of Sir Jos. Banks. He calls it *stalagmitis cambogioides*. It is of the genus *polygamia monoecia*: the character of the species, *stamina receptaculo quadrangulati inserta: bacca stigmate lobato coronata*. The *cambogia gutta* & *hypericum bacciferum*, Lin. yield a juice of a different nature, though somewhat resembling the true gamboge. To this are added descriptions of the *murraya exotica*, Lin. and the *aloe elongata*, Murray, both from plants in flower in the botanical garden at Gottingen.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

THEOLOGY.

ART. VII. Winterthur. *Handbibel für Leidende, &c.* A Pocket-bible for the Afflicted, by J. C. Lavater. 8vo. 416 p. Price 1r. 8g. (4s. 6d.) 1788.

Three hundred and fifty short rhapsodies, or occasional devotions, on texts of scripture, for the consolation of the afflicted, partly in verse, partly in prose, wholly in Lavater's well known manner, containing some edifying reflections, clothed in a lively, though sometimes rather too wordy style. The most prominent idea, which is conspicuous every where throughout the book, is, that 'by faith all things are possible.' The following passage we will give as a specimen of the work.

'He that believes the scriptures doubts not the presence of angels. He who believes in angels, believes in powerful and invisible lovers of

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of God and of man. He who believes in angels, and is afflicted; that belief consoles him in his affliction. He who is not consoled by the idea, that angels are the friends of men, that they are the guardians of the afflicted, believes not in angels. He who believes not in angels is a Sadducee, who has no knowledge of the scriptures, or of the power of God. What is written is written for instruction and consolation. Why are angels mentioned in the scriptures, but for us, for the sorrowing, for the afflicted? Why is it written, "the angel of the Lord protects them who fear him," might not every sufferer who loves God take and apply that passage to himself? An application which the bible commands us to adopt. God is ever the same; man the very same; angels the very same. In all times the afflicted seek consolation: the noblest sufferers of all times have looked with an eye of faith towards the invisible world. To the righteous who worship God, the existence of angels is not more strange than that of men, and as comfortable a reflection now, as it was a thousand years ago."

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

ART. VIII. *Göttingen*. The 2d Part of the 4th edition of Michaelis's Introduction to the New Testament, (See our Rev. Vol. I. p. 493) is now published, containing 776 p. and 126 p. for the index. Price of the whole 6 r. (11. 1s.) Those who possess the 3d edition, may have the additions and alterations made in the 4th, in one Vol. 4to. 435 p. *Zusätze und Veränderungen der 4. Ausgabe von M. Einleit. in das N. T. &c.* *Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

ART. IX. *Tübingen*. *Notitiæ historicæ Epistolarum Pauli ad Cor. Interpretationi inservientes*. Historical Remarks tending to explain the Epistles of Paul to the Corinthians. 4to. 106 p. Price 6 g. (10½.) 1788.

It is obvious, that a good account of many historical circumstances alluded to in these epistles, of which we know but little, would tend greatly to elucidate their contents. For the present attempt, Dr. Storr, who is the author, deserves much praise. Obligated in many instances to have recourse to conjecture, all Dr. S.'s opinions cannot be expected to appear as well-founded to others as to himself, yet has this little work more merit than many that have been ushered into the world with far greater pomp. Supposing the brother mentioned in 2 Cor. chap. viii. ver. 18. to be Mark, Dr. S. takes occasion to defend his former opinions that the gospel of Mark was written prior to those of Luke and Matthew.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

ART. X. *Riga*. *Evangelium Secundum Marcum, &c.* The Gospel of Mark, in Greek and Latin, from MSS. never before examined, chiefly at Moscow, with Notes, by Christian F. Matthäus: to which are added some Specimens. Large 8vo. 441 p. 1788.

M. M. has already published Matthew, the Epistles to the Thessalonians, Galatians, Ephesians, Philippians, Hebrews, Colossians, and Timothy, and the Apocalypse. In the present volume are given some general remarks on MSS. and on ascertaining their age; and we are promised a complete catalogue of the MSS. at Moscow.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

M E D I C I N E.

ART. XI. *Paris.* The weather, during the month of June, was rainy, the heat very moderate and variable. During the former and latter parts of the month, the mornings and evenings were cool: about the middle of the month there were five or six warm days.

Intermittent fevers continued to appear, but in general they were relapses of former ones that had disappeared for a time. Bilious fevers were common, but by no means obstinate. Rheumatic bastard pleurifies were frequent: sometimes of a putrid type. Eruptive diseases were very common: erysipelatose ones the most frequent, terminating very speedily. Hæmorrhoidal complaints were very numerous, occasioning colics, and requiring some venesections with the use of whey. Gout and rheumatism renewed their attacks: and the small pox, though of a mild sort, had not quite disappeared.

Journal de Médecine.

ART. XII. *Paris. Nouvelles ou Annales de Médecine, &c.* Annals of Medicine, Surgery, and Pharmacy, being a Collection of all that it is necessary to learn, in order to be acquainted with every Thing known in the Art of Healing, and guarded against Errors in it: by M. Retz. Physician in ordinary to the King. Vol. V. Small 12mo. 756 p. 1789.

This is an annual journal, in which M. R. reviews the medical publications of the year. There is a frankness in his criticisms, but they are frequently too severe, and not always supported by facts. He thinks that nurses hasten the deaths of many persons, some of which might have recovered, by giving them liquors when unable to swallow. "The patient's head is raised, the liquor poured into his mouth, it produces a cough; every kind of shock it is hoped has some good effect, more is poured in; it passes with difficulty; they suppose the passage is obstructed, and that it must frequently be moistened to prevent this; the doses are augmented, the intervals lessened: the cough increases, convulsions and hiccup come on, the head sinks, the lungs are oppressed, the respiration is short and difficult, the air obstructed in the bronchiæ makes a rattling noise, and the patient dies, suffocated by the liquor he has swallowed getting into the lungs, whilst he had neither strength, nor perhaps presence of mind, to shut the glottis in swallowing." He adds, that he has found wine, pitans, &c. in the bronchiæ; and observes that little can be expected from any thing going into the stomach, when the functions of the external organs have ceased. "As soon as the sick are incapable of asking for drink, they are also of swallowing or digesting it."

L'Esprit des Journaux.

ART. XIII. *Paris. Nouvelles Recherches sur la Fièvre puerpérale, &c.* New Inquiries concerning the Puerperal Fever, or an Essay on the Means of discovering the Character of that Disease, and the Principles on which we ought to found our Method of Cure; by M. Doublet, Doctor-regent of the Faculty of Paris, &c.

M. D.'s object is to prove, that the puerperal fever depends neither on a putrid disposition of the humours, nor on inflammation of the womb
or

or intestines, but that it is produced by a metastasis of the milk, most frequently taking place in the cavity of the abdomen. M. D. grounds his opinion on the total disappearance, or great diminution of milk in the breasts, which constantly accompanies this disease: the appearances after death, a greater or less quantity of milky lymph being found extravasated in the cavity of the abdomen, and clots of curdled milk on the surface of the intestines, of those who die of it: and the abundant flow of milk to the breasts, and to the skin, which always occur when the disease terminates favourably. Emetics hold the principal place in M. D.'s method of cure, employing other medicines as auxiliaries, according to circumstances: he supposes their efficacy to depend on determining the milky matter to the skin.

On Mr. White's observations on the swelling of the extremities, M. D. remarks, that Van Swieten observed it was carried off by an evacuation of white urine, and that lymphatic swellings are transparent, whilst milky ones are opaque.

This work contains a profound discussion of the nature and causes of puerperal fever; its principles are clear, and always supported by experience; and it appears to us a complete treatise on the disease, in which the opinions of those who consider it as a local inflammation, or as a putrid fever, are victoriously combated.

M. Roussel. *Journ. de Médecine.*

ART. XIV. Munster. C. C. Hoffmann *Opuscula Latina Medici Argumenti, &c.* C. C. Hoffmann's medical Tracts, now first collected, with a Preface, by H. Chavet. Vol. I. 8vo. 369 p. Price 16 g. (2s. 4d.) 1789.

M. C. does not merely give tracts written by H. but also tracts which owe their publication to him. This volume contains, 1. Inaugural essay on hearing, 1746.—2. On the action, use, and abuse of rubefacients, blisters, issues, and setons, 1759.—3. New method of cutting for the stone, in males, without danger, 1760.—4. Dissertation to shew, that, *ceteris paribus*, the more people die in a state, the more skilful are the physicians, 1761. The argument is, where there are good physicians population encreases, and where population is encreased the number of deaths must be greatest.—5. On the certainty of the healing art.—6. Examination of the question, whether defective formation of the fœtus, harelips, various excrescences and marks are produced by the mother's imagination, or not. This essay, written with much humour, shews that the affirmative cannot be true.—7. On the digestion of food in the human stomach. The three last tracts were never before printed.—8. Inquiry into the causes of the perfect repletion of the large vessels, observed in the dead body; by J. Forkenbeck, 1764.—9. Method of giving corrosive sublimate safely, and in large quantities; by J. Jacob.—10. Essay to prove, that opium weakens the power of the fibres of the heart, and yet encreases the motion of the blood; by C. J. Wirtensohn, 1775. M. C. has translated and added Fehr's answers to the criticisms on this celebrated tract in the *Allg. Deutsch. Bibliothek*.—10. On the generation of matter exciting inflammatory and slow fevers; by F. A. Fries, 1779. *Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

ANATOMY.

ART. XV. Mentz. S. T. *Sömmering vom Hirn & Rückenmark*. On the Brain and Spinal Marrow : by S. T. Sömmering. 8vo. 11; p. Price 8 g. (1s. 2d.) 1788.

M. S. has employed twelve years in examining the human brain, and comparing it with that of animals. In this time he has dissected with his own hand 134 of the former kind, and 136 of the latter, several of which were of rare species. He has favoured us with many valuable observations, that display the hand of a master; but we regret his having passed by many important objects unnoticed, and given too cursory a view of others. *Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeitung.*

CHEMISTRY.

ART. XVI. *Suite du Memoire sur la meilleure Maniere de faire la Composition des Miroirs des Telescopes, &c.* Continuation of an Essay on the best Method of making the Composition for the Mirrors of Telescopes : by Mr. John Edwards. *Journ. de Physique.*

Mr. Edwards gives the result of his experiments on fusing together different kinds and proportions of metals and semi-metals, with the view of discovering the most proper composition for the mirrors of telescopes. The compositions in the above experiments were 71 different kinds; the ingredients were copper and tin; copper, tin, and arsenic; copper, tin, arsenic, and nitre; copper, tin, arsenic, and flint glass in powder; brass and tin; brass, copper, and tin; brass, tin, and arsenic; brass and arsenic; brass, copper, and arsenic; brass and platina; copper, tin, and crude antimony; copper, tin, arsenic, and bismuth; copper and zinc; copper, tin, arsenic, and zinc; this last composition, and corrosive sublimate; zinc and tin; brass and zinc; copper, and crude antimony; copper, tin, and arsenic; silver and bismuth; silver and tin; silver, tin, and bismuth; copper, tin, and silver; copper, tin, brass, and arsenic; copper, tin, brass, silver, and arsenic; bell metal; bell metal, and regulus of antimony; copper, tin, and regulus of antimony; crude antimony and cawk; copper, tin, and glass of antimony made with cawk; copper, tin, and lead; copper, tin, and regulus of antimony; copper, tin, and iron filings; the two last compositions; copper, tin, arsenic, and filings of iron; platina, brass, and cawk; copper, tin, iron filings, regulus of antimony, and corrosive sublimate; regulus of antimony and tin; melted steel; steel and tin; steel, and composition of copper, tin, brass, silver, and arsenic; steel, and composition of copper and zinc.

Of all the above compositions, that of copper 32 parts, tin 15, brass 4, and arsenic 2 parts, was the most proper for the purpose of the experiments, as the compound was the whitest, the hardest, reflected most light, and was capable of the finest polish. The crude antimony 16 parts, and cawk stone 1 to 2 parts, formed a very brilliant metal, similar to the glass of antimony, but not proper for mirrors. As a chemical fact, this composition deserves particular notice, and especially because the barytes, one of the components of the cawk, has a distinguishing property of metals, viz. when combined with acids of decomposing Prussian alkali. The steel could not be melted in a crucible,

crucible, in a common furnace for fusion, therefore one was built expressly of a particular construction.

ART. XVII. *Memoire sur la Chaleur*: Essay on Heat: by M. Leopold Vacca Berlinghieri.

M. B. endeavours to show the insufficiency of M. Lavoisier's theory of heat, founded on the experiments, and doctrine, of Black and Irwine, on this subject, lately amplified by Dr. Crawford. The author in very perspicuous language, states the grounds of the doctrine he opposes. With the above professors he calls *absolute heat*, the quantity of igneous matter which is contained in bodies, and *sensible heat*, its action on the sensations, and thermometer. This instrument cannot measure the quantity of *absolute heat*. If two pounds of water of the temperature of 200° be mixed with an equal quantity of water of 200° , the thermometer will indicate no more heat, though it is plain the absolute quantity must be doubled. Here however is no difficulty, for it is well known that in two homogeneous bodies of the same sensible heat, the absolute heat must be in the ratio of their masses directly; and in equal masses of such bodies, the absolute heat must be in the direct ratio of their sensible heat; and in the same substance, the absolute heat must be in the compound ratio of the direct ratio of the mass, and that of the sensible heat. The thermometer has been supposed to indicate the comparative quantity of heat in two heterogeneous bodies, by mixing water with different substances. If two homogeneaneous bodies of different sensible temperatures be mixed together, the sensible heat of the mixture will be half of the excess, subtracted from the hottest substance added to the colder body. But if two equal masses of quicksilver and water, the former of two, and the latter of four degrees of sensible heat be mixed together, the temperature of the mixture will not be, as we should expect from the mixture of homogeneous bodies, three degrees, but three degrees and a half. As the increment, one degree and a half of temperature of the mercury, could only arise from the water, and as the water has only suffered a decrement of half a degree, it follows that heat which is half a degree in water being transferred to quicksilver, is one degree and a half; and hence mercury and water being of the same temperature to the thermometer, the former contains three times as much absolute heat as the latter. This different manner in which heat is contained in quicksilver and water, has been called capacity; and the method of discovering the capacity of different substances consists in mixing them of different temperatures. It is plain that the capacity is in the inverse ratio of the changes of sensible heat, observed in the substances mixed together. This method has been applied to determine the differences of absolute heat, in animal bodies, with the view of ascertaining the cause of animal heat, and of combustion. Thus it is concluded, the blood cannot derive its absolute heat from the alimentary matters, because it has more absolute heat than these substances. The blood acquires much absolute heat in passing through the lungs: then it is in contact with atmospheric air, which air is changed into aerial acid, and phlogisticated air. The capacity of atmospheric air is 67 times as great as that of the aerial acid, i. e. if one degree of sensible heat be transferred into aerial acid, it will raise the
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the temperature of the latter 67 degrees. But if atmospheric air be changed into aerial acid, without losing any of its absolute heat, what degree of sensible heat should be found in the aerial acid? As the thermometer of Fahrenheit fell 200 degrees below the mean temperature of the atmosphere, we may say that at such a temperature the air has, at least, 200 degrees less sensible heat, and as each degree of this air, should produce 67 degrees in aerial acid, the number of degrees of heat of that air is $= 200 \times 67 = 13400$. But this heat, which is greater than that of red hot iron, does not escape from the lungs with the aerial acid; therefore we must conclude that a portion infinitely small of absolute heat of the atmosphere remains in the aerial acid, and that the greatest part has been absorbed by the blood. Animal heat being thus supposed to be demonstrated to be a slow combustion of the blood, the same theory is applied to combustion, and in general to all phlogistic processes. M. B. alleges this demonstration is *false*, because *aqueous vapour* has an enormous capacity for heat; apparently it is to that of *liquid water* as 900 : 1. The capacity of atmospheric air, is to that of liquid water as 19 : 1, or nearly so. Therefore the capacity of aqueous vapour is to that of atmospheric air as 900 : 19; or, 47 : 1, nearly. Dr. Crawford in his calculation, says M. B. has not reckoned the aqueous vapour from the lungs. 'Perhaps I should be contradicted,' says he 'by few persons, if I affirmed, that the half of the mass which is discharged by expiration was water; and if I affirmed it was $\frac{1}{16}$ of this expired matter, I believe no reasonable argument could be brought against me. But to make a calculation more satisfactory to the partisans of Dr. C.'s theory, I suppose this water to be $\frac{1}{47}$ only.' The atmospheric air which enters the lungs is supposed to be of 200°. It is changed into the aerial acid, and mixed with $\frac{1}{47}$ of aqueous vapour. It is discharged from the mouth considerably hotter than it entered. But the aqueous vapour has a capacity, 47 times greater than the atmospheric air; hence it follows, that if all the absolute heat of that air in a quantity of vapour, which is only $\frac{1}{47}$ of its mass, be transmitted, the sensible heat of that vapour, will be equal to that of the atmospheric air, previously to inspiration. Hence the whole heat of the atmosphere is destroyed, when it is in $\frac{1}{47}$ aqueous vapour of 200°. The air is then without an atom of absolute heat, and should not manifest any heat, whatever change it may undergo, and it should occasion the quicksilver in the thermometer, to descend to the point of its congelation. However we observe, that in the air respired, there is more than $\frac{1}{47}$ of aqueous vapor, that it is heated much more than the atmospheric air, when it has entered into the lungs; that the aerial acid into which the atmospheric air is changed, in place of being quite cold, has acquired heat, and that the blood has had its absolute heat considerably augmented. Now the heat of animals in the lungs, can only proceed from the atmospheric air, or from the blood, there being nothing else in the lungs: but I have shown, says M. B. that it cannot arise from the air, and Dr. C. has proved it cannot be furnished by the lungs, therefore he concludes that Dr. C.'s principle is erroneous; yet he thinks his method is accurate, and nothing in physics better established, than the mode of demonstrating the heat that acts upon temperature; but there is also a great quantity of heat incapable of acting, so as to influence the temperature of bodies, and which is not made appear by Dr. C.'s method.

• M. Lavoisier

* M. Lavoisier has conceived a theory upon the foundation of Dr. C.'s experiments, which he applies to numerous chemical phenomena. Among other parts of his theory, he considers the molecules of bodies not to be in contact, and their distance from each other, to depend on the matter of heat—that these molecules are subject to the laws of repulsion from heat, and of attraction—that the effect of cooling bodies, is to diminish the repulsive force of the molecules, and by that means the force of attraction becomes superior, and occasions a diminution of volume, in making the particles approach nearer each other. But the fact, with regard to these contractions, is inconsistent with the quantities of heat separated—the contractions are greater than the diminution of heat. According to Mr. Lavoisier's theory, by taking away equal quantities of heat, we should make a diminution, which is proportional, of distance between the molecules. But as attraction acts in the inverse ratio of the squares of the distances, it follows that the contraction should be in an increasing proportion.

Mr. Lavoisier's theory falls to the ground with that of Dr. Crawford's, according to our author. In calculating the specific heat according to Dr. C.'s method, we find it not adequate to the production of the heat of combustion, and animal heat. Hence it appears that the heat of combustion does not depend, in a great measure, on the heat of the vital air in the atmosphere. Mr. Lavoisier has given the detail of the quantity of heat disengaged by combustion, but he has not related, as he himself imagines, the quantity of heat which vital air loses, and served to preserve its elasticity. The theory of Lavoisier is contradicted by experiment: for heat is disengaged in greater quantity, when phosphorus and sulphur are burnt in vital air, than when charcoal is burnt. But according to Mr. L.'s theory, the quantity of heat disengaged, should be in the inverse ratio of the changes of capacity of vital air after combustion. Therefore, as after the combustion of phosphorus and sulphur, we find phosphoric and vitriolic acid, and as after the inflammation of charcoal, we find the aerial acid, the aerial acid should have a greater capacity than those other two acids: but the contrary is the fact, for suppose the capacity of water = 1,000, the capacity of the aerial acid, is to the capacity of water as 0,270 : 1,000, and the capacity of the vitriolic acid, is to that of water as 0,759 : 1,000.

Besides these objections to professor Black's theory of latent heat, applied by Dr. Crawford to explain animal heat, are those of Mr. Pearson, some time ago published in the medical journal, which are yet unanswered. If an animal can live, though the pulmonary artery be destroyed by disease, and likewise though the lungs themselves be wholly absorbed, animal heat cannot be explained by the new theory.

TACTICS.

ART. XVIII. Berlin. *Gedanken über militärische Gegenstände, &c.* Thoughts on military Subjects: by Fred. Aug. von Fink, formerly Lieutenant-General in the Prussian Service, and afterwards General of the Danish Infantry; published, with Remarks and Additions: by M. A. von Winterfeld. 8vo. 148 pages. Price 10 gr. (1s. 6d.) 1788.

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This work, which appears to have been written during the author's confinement at Spandau, treats on the following subjects. 1. On military discipline. 2. On victualing, clothing, and arming soldiers. 3. On forming a soldier, and the duties of one. 4. On quarters, and taking care of invalids. 5. On marrying. 6. On the establishment of a corps of cadets, from youths of rank. 7. On the establishment of a corps of artillery and engineers. 8. On the division of a regiment of infantry. 9. On marching and counter-marching. 10. On flourishing colours. 11. On forming a square. 12. On military commissaryship. Between this and the following article, there was an hiatus of four sheets in the manuscript. 17. On the beating up of quarters. 18. On marching. 19. On spies. 20. On the qualities of a commander in chief. 21. On the knowledge of a country. 22. On attack. 23. On defence.

We find but few new principles, but the work is well written, and contains many good rules, generally exemplified from occurrences of the war in Silesia. The preface contains some particulars of Fink's life, partly from an imperfect diary, partly from Tielke. In a note, Fink ascribes the beginning of his misfortunes to the cavalry's quitting a post near Maxen, in which he had placed them.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeitung.

COMMERCE.

ART. XIX. Paris. *Considérations sur le Traité de Commerce, &c.* Thoughts on the Treaty of Commerce between France and Great-Britain, of the 26th of September, 1786. 1789.

It is easy to conceive, that two men of equal abilities, and equal knowledge of the grand objects of government, may differ in opinion respecting the commercial treaty. Soon after it was concluded, the chamber of commerce of Normandy complained greatly, and endeavoured to decry it by their writings. M. Dup***t, by whom the minister had been guided in concluding it, attempted its defence, by showing, that, though it might be unfavourable to the particular manufactures of Normandy, it had been adopted with views of a more general advantage to the kingdom. (See our Rev. Vol. II. p. 375.) This work, full of excellent ideas, and supported by established principles, appeased the minds of people: but M. Cl*** de Bl***, the author of this pamphlet, whose skill in politics is already known by some valuable works, has now thought proper to call in question the reciprocal advantageousness of this treaty; which he has done with great force and intelligence. He first blames the minister for having concluded the treaty, clandestinely as it were, without consulting those who were most concerned in the business, and who were most capable of pointing out to him the true interests of the country. He then observes, that France offers 24 or 26 millions of consumers to England, whilst the latter affords her but 8 or 10: that the articles of commerce in which England can undersell France, are those of most utility, of which, consequently, the consumption is greatest, whilst France has the superiority in articles of luxury only: that even in these the wines and spirits of Portugal, and the oils of Italy, will be preferred to those of France, and silks are prohibited: that the English have exaggerated the advantages that would accrue to the French from the im-
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portation of these into their country, and thus the latter have suffered themselves to be caught by the same bait as Spain and Portugal were a century ago. After having entered minutely into a discussion of the several articles, M. de B. concludes, that, in whatever point of view we examine the commercial treaty, it cannot be denied but that it is extremely dangerous to France.

It remains, however, for time to determine, whether the efforts of a better administration may not lessen the advantages of England over France, and whether this treaty may not gradually extinguish that jealous rivalry, which has given birth to destructive wars, far more injurious to the finances of the nation than all the disadvantages calculated by M. de B.

Journal Encyclopédique.

REVOLUTION IN FRANCE.

ART. XX. Paris. *Discours sur la Liberté François, &c.* A Discourse on the Liberty of France, delivered August 5, 1789, in the parochial Church of St. James and the Holy Innocents, during a Solemnity performed in Memory of the Citizens who fell in Defence of their Country at the taking of the Bastille. By M. l'Abbé Fauchet, one of the Fourteen of the first permanent Committee, &c.

Critics have repeatedly said, that nothing was wanting to French eloquence but those great occasions, so frequent among a free people, as, for example, the Greeks and Romans. M. F. has seized the happy era of his country's liberation to paint to an audience a grand event, of which themselves were witnesses. Having taken an active part in the affair, for he was three times repulsed, by being fired on from the walls of the Bastille, to which he was advancing with a flag of truce, it was natural for him to be chosen to celebrate the memories of those who fell in destroying that bulwark of tyranny: his success was equal to his courage. We will give a specimen of his style.

‘ Il faut des rois à de grandes nations, mais des rois librement institués pour exécuter les loix. Il faut des loix à tous les peuples, mais des loix librement consenties par la volonté publique. La liberté n'est pas anarchie; elle est l'ordre. L'homme est un être intelligent, qu'il pense; il est un être sensible, qu'il veuille; il est un être sociable, qu'il associe ses pensées aux pensées de ses freres, ses volontés aux volontés de ses concitoyens. De ce résultat naitront des loix réelles, un gouvernement véritable, un souverain puissant pour la bien, le fraternité civile, l'unité nationale, la liberté: telle est la nature de l'homme, tels sont ses droits.’

At the following passage some have pretended to take offence: “ Il faut le dire, & tres haut, & jusques dans les temples, c'est la philosophie qui a ressuscité la nature; c'est elle qui a recrée l'esprit humain & redonné un cœur à la société. L'humanité étoit morte par la servitude; elle s'est ranimée par la pensée; elle a cherché en elle même; elle y a trouvé la liberté; elle a jeté le cri de la vérité dans l'univers.” But surely it contains nothing offensive to true religion.

Journal Encyclopédique.

ART. XXI. Paris and Versailles. *Résumé général, ou Extrait des Cahiers de Pouvoirs, &c.* A general Abridgement of, or Extracts from the Powers, Instructions, Demands, and Grievances, delivered by the several Bailliages, Sénéchaussées, and Pays-d'Etats of the Kingdom

Kingdom to their Deputies to the Assembly of the States-General. By a Society of literary Gentlemen. 8vo. 3 vol. pr. 13l. 10s. (11s. 3d.)

This abridgement will point out to posterity the wants and grievances of the French monarchy, the abuses which have from time to time crept into it, and the modes of remedying them, which have been devised by the spirit of the times. It might have been comprised in a shorter compass, perhaps, without detriment, by avoiding repetitions of the same things in nearly the same words.

L'Esprit des Journaux.

CLASSICAL LITERATURE.

ART. XXII. Leipzig. The 1st Vol. of *Schweighauser's Polybius*, (on which we had already noticed his being employed, see our Review, Vol. II. p. 510) is published in large 8vo. 718 p. pr. 3r. (10s. 6d.). It contains the 1st, 2d, and 3d books. For internal worth and typographical excellence, it may challenge the best productions of any press in Europe. The helps for correcting the text employed by M. S. are: 1. The *Codex Bavaricus*; which Casaubon had used, but not carefully. M. S. esteems it of the 14th century. It was probably this ms. that Aetzelius lent Obfopæus, when he published the *Editio princeps* of the first five books. The variations given by Obfopæus in the margin, were not conjectural, but appear in this ms. either in the margin, or interlined. 2. *Codex Augustanus*; on silk. It contains books I.—V. with fragments of VI.—X. in the same hand. Its age is that of the former, but has more good lections. 3. *Cod. Regius A.* of the Parisian library, No. 1668; on paper. It has books I.—V. probably written by Strategus, the calligrapher, and copied from the same ms. as the foregoing, but more carefully. 4. *Cod. Vaticanus*; on vellum. It was written by a monk, named Ephraim. Montfaucon styles it *antiquissimus*. Spalletti, who collated it for M. S. places it in the tenth century. In each of these mss. are hiatus, which are supplied by some of the others. 5. *Adparatus Codd. Florentin.* These were excerpted by Gronovius. 6. *Cod. Urbino-Vaticanus*: written about the twelfth century. 7. *Cod. Urfini.* Urfini certainly used a ms. of the five books, but it was either the Vatican, or one exactly similar. 8. *Suidas* probably had not a complete Polybius before him, but select passages only. 9. *Perottus* took his Latin version from a ms. no doubt, but too loosely translated to be admitted as an authority. 10. *Cod. regius B.* or No. 1649. Written by A. Vergerius, in 1547, from the edition of Obfopæus. 11. *Cod. regius C.* No. 1716; probably by the same; containing books I. II.

At the bottom of the page, M. S. has given various lections in certain circumstances: as, where they were specious, but not admitted: where they related to an evidently corrupt or doubtful reading, but did not sufficiently amend it: and where an emendation is admitted that is not supported by any ms.

We must reserve our judgment on this work till we see the notes, but such valuable materials, with the editor's known learning, talents, and industry, excite in us no small expectation.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

BIOGRA-

B I O G R A P H Y.

ART. XXIII. Paris. *Correspondance particuliere du Comte de St. Germain, &c.* Private Correspondence of Count de St. Germain, Minister and Secretary at War, &c. with M. Paris du Verney, Councillor of State. 2 vols. 8vo. pr. sewed, 7l. 4s. (6s.)

To give the reader a just idea of the character of this eccentric man, and the many vicissitudes to which he was exposed, a short sketch of his life is prefixed to these letters. His biographer is impartial, and well qualified for writing the life of a statesman and a soldier.

L'Esprit des Journaux.

ART. XXIV. *Uwagi nad zyciem Jana Zamoyskiego, Kanclerza i Hetmana W. Kor. do dzisiejszego stanu Rzeczypospolitey Polskiej przysposowane, &c.* Remarks on the Life of the Grand-Chancellor and Commander in Chief, John Zamoyski, with respect to the present State of the Republic of Poland. 8vo. 365 p.

This celebrated book, without date or place where printed, except that Heilberg is set under the dedication, was first made public in the year 1787, and was unquestionably the alarm bell to the commotions which have since arisen to so great a height. The writer of the life of this immortal statesman displays a thorough knowledge of the country and its constitution, with an ardent zeal for liberty. It produced, as might naturally be supposed, a multitude of political pamphlets, chiefly published at Warsaw in the course of the last year. We will give the titles of those which most deserve notice. *Myśl z okazji Uwag nad zyciem Jana Zamoyskiego.*—*Myśl na myśl, y do myśli z okazji Uwag nad zyciem J. Zamoyskiego wydanej Rosniaca fix.*—*Zgoda y niezgoda z Autorem Uwag, &c.*—*Do autora Zgody y Niezgody, względem Uwag, &c.*—*Sposob powiększenia Sit krajowych w Polsce przez popieranie Milicye.*—*Myśl nad Stanem prawodawczym w Polsce.*—*Respons Ziemiańska do Przysiadcła w Warszawie barwiacego.*

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

D R A M A.

ART. XXV. Paris. *Theatre Italien.* Sept. 25. The great success of *Les Deux petits Savoyards*, (see our Rev. Vol. III. p. 511.) gave occasion to a second part of that piece, under the title of *Encore des Savoyards, ou l'Ecole des Parvenus*, a comedy in two acts, in prose. It was extremely well received; but, like most second parts, was inferior to the former. The plot is the different endeavours of the two Savoyards and their mother, unknown to each other, to procure three vacant places in the uncle's family for the same persons, who had formerly been their great friends. The author is M. Pujouls.

L'Esprit des Journaux.

ART. XXVI. Naples. *Storia critica de' Teatri Antichi e Moderni, &c.* Critical History of the Drama, both of the Ancients and Moderns. By P. N. Signorelli. Vol. I. 8vo.

This is not a new edition of the work published with the same title, in one vol. 8vo. in 1777, but a quite different undertaking, on a much more extensive scale, being to consist of five volumes. This first re-

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lates to the origin of the drama, in the various parts of the globe, and, in our opinion, does honour to its author, and to the nation.

Giornale Enciclopedico di Vicenza.

ENGRAVINGS.

ART. XXVII. Paris. *Collection générale des Portraits de M. M. les Députés aux Etats Généraux*, General Collection of Portraits of the Deputies of the States General.

This Collection is publishing in numbers, one containing eight portraits in 4to. price 8l. (6s. 8d.) every fortnight. They are engraved under the direction of M. Sergeant.

L'Esprit des Journaux.

MISCELLANIES.

ART. XXVIII. Turin. *Giornale scientifico, letterario, e delle Arti, &c.* Journal of Arts, Sciences, and Literature, by a philosophical Society at Turin, collected and arranged by G. A. Giobert, and Dr. C. Giulio, Members of several Academies. vol. I. part I. 8vo. 1789.

Besides remarks on new publications, both Italian and foreign, it is proposed in this periodical work to give an account of all new discoveries tending to the promotion of knowledge, and to insert in each number two original essays, by men of reputation in the literary world. In the present, are one on the beauties of different styles, by count Bava de St. Paul: and another on marle, and other fossile substances used as manure, by M. Giobert. M. G. observes, that the fertility of land depends on a just proportion of siliceous, calcareous, and argillaceous earths, and that there is no district where some substance or other may not be found to supply the natural defects of the soil. This number also contains, meteorological observations made at Turin in Nov. and Dec. 1788, and a comparison of the states of the thermometer at Paris and at Turin in December.

Efemeridi letterarie di Roma.

ART. XXIX. Paris. *La Noblesse considérée sous ses divers Rapports, &c.* Nobility considered under its different Relations, in the general and particular national Assemblies; or Representations of the States General and Assemblies of Notables for and against the Nobility; with preliminary Observations. By M. Chébin. 8vo. about 400 p. price 5l. (4s. 2d.)

This work is written with care, and is a deliberate inquiry after truth, unbiaised by the spirit of party. M. C.'s situation, being genealogist to the royal orders, was peculiarly favourable to his design.

L'Esprit des Journaux.

ART. XXX. *Les Amours d'Anas-Eloujoud & de Ouardi, &c.* The Amours of Anas-Eloujoud and Ouardi, a Tale translated from the Arabic. By M. Savary.

The known taste of the author of *Travels in Egypt* is sufficient to stamp the merit of the original of this posthumous work, and his skill in the Arabic language warrants the fidelity of the translation. Of its style we can say, that few works of this kind are so pleasingly written.

Mercur de France.